

Durham Research Online

Deposited in DRO:

24 July 2014

Version of attached file:

Accepted Version

Peer-review status of attached file:

Peer-reviewed

Citation for published item:

Martorano, B. and Natali, L. and de Neubourg, C. and Bradshaw, J. (2014) 'Child well-being in advanced economies in the late 2000s.', *Social indicators research.*, 118 (1). 247-283 .

Further information on publisher's website:

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s11205-013-0402-z>

Publisher's copyright statement:

The final publication is available at Springer via <http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s11205-013-0402-z>.

Additional information:

Use policy

The full-text may be used and/or reproduced, and given to third parties in any format or medium, without prior permission or charge, for personal research or study, educational, or not-for-profit purposes provided that:

- a full bibliographic reference is made to the original source
- a [link](#) is made to the metadata record in DRO
- the full-text is not changed in any way

The full-text must not be sold in any format or medium without the formal permission of the copyright holders.

Please consult the [full DRO policy](#) for further details.

Child Well-being in Advanced Economies in the Late 2000s

Bruno Martorano bmartorano@unicef.org

UNICEF Office of Research / Innocenti Research Centre, Italy

Luisa Natali lnatali@unicef.org

UNICEF Office of Research / Innocenti Research Centre, Italy

Chris de Neubourg cneubourg@unicef.org

UNICEF Office of Research / Innocenti Research Centre, Italy

Jonathan Bradshaw jrb1@york.ac.uk

University of York, UK

ABSTRACT

This paper compares the well-being of children across the most economically advanced countries of the world. It discusses the methodological issues involved in comparing children's well-being across countries and explains how a Child Well-being Index is constructed to rank countries according to their performance in advancing child-well-being. The index uses 30 indicators combined in 13 components again summarised in 5 dimensions for 35 rich countries. Data from various sources are combined to capture aspects of child well-being: material well-being, health, education, behaviour and risks, housing and environment. The scores for the countries on all variables and combinations of variables are discussed in detail. The Child Well-being index reveals that serious differences exist across countries suggesting that in quite many countries improvement could be made in the quality of the lives of children. This paper is one of the three background papers written as the basis for Report Card 11 (2013) titled Child Well-being in Rich Countries: a Comparative View.

1. Introduction

The Convention of the Right of the Child (CRC) is accepted and ratified by almost all countries in the world. By adopting and implementing the Convention, countries intend to create conditions that allow all children to develop to their full potential. In the creation of these conditions, countries guarantee a minimum level of child well-being or more generously strive at maximising the well-being of their children. Monitoring the well-being of children is therefore important: the exercise not only takes stock of how well-off children are, but also reminds governments and societies around the globe of their obligations towards children and points them in directions where improvements could and should be made. That applies equally to low- and middle-income countries as to economically advanced countries. This paper compares the well-being of children across the most economically advanced countries of the world. It follows the mandate of UNICEF to hold countries responsible for living up to the promises made in the CRC; it is also a follow-up to the tradition of the regular publications of the Report Cards by the Innocenti Research Centre (recently renamed as UNICEF's Office of Research at Innocenti). This paper is one of the three background

papers written as the basis for Report Card 11 (2013) titled Child Well-being in Rich Countries: a Comparative View.

2. Theoretical and Methodological frameworks

2.1 Theoretical framework

Child well-being is a multifaceted concept which is not easy to measure. In this case the CRC shapes the inspiration, but the technical decisions regarding the construction of a child well-being index and its underlying components are guided by theoretical considerations and the availability of data. Obviously this paper is not the first attempt to measure child well-being comprehensively in economically advanced countries. Major recent contributions are reviewed in Ben-Arieh and Frønes, 2011.

Within the Report Card series of UNICEF's Innocenti Research Centre this paper follows Report Card 7. Since the latter publication, progress has been made in conceptualising and operationalizing child well-being and this paper (and Report Card 11) reflect some (though not all) of the innovations made. Since the latter publication, new data have been introduced largely measuring the same underlying concepts; in some cases entirely new data became available opening possibilities to introduce new concepts and in other cases forcing the authors to reconsider indicators or even entire concepts.

Maintaining the same right-based approach, the work in this paper harks back to the Report Card 7 where child well-being was defined as “the realisation of children's rights and the fulfilment of the opportunity for every child to be all she or he can be in the light of a child's abilities, potential and skills” (Bradshaw et al, 2007).

But, how can we measure well-being in practice? Although there is a rising number of works on this topic, there is no consensus on how to operationalize and measure the concept of child well-being (Ben-Arieh and Frønes, 2011). However, there are a number of points of convergence coming from the empirical literature.

Consensus exists around the multi-dimensional nature of child well-being. The intrinsic problem of this approach is however related to the selection of the dimensions affecting well-being and to the impossibility to measure them. For example, the Multi-National Project for Monitoring and Measuring Children's Well-Being (Ben-Arieh et al. 2001 quoted in Bradshaw et al, 2007) identified five components: 1) safety and physical status, 2) Personal life, 3) Civic life, 4) Children's economic resources and contributions and 5) Children's activities. However, data availability is a clear constraint especially when comparing the conditions of children across countries. These problems represent an important obstacle and limit the scope of the analysis. For these same reasons, analyses are often country-specific. One of the most relevant examples is the US Child Well-Being Index (CWI). Introduced in the 1970s and updated annually, it covers seven dimensions: 1) material well-being; 2) health; 3) safety/behavioural concerns; 4) Productive activity (educational attainment); 5) Place in community (participation in schooling or work institutions); 6) Social relationships (family, peers); and 7) Emotional/spiritual well-being. Similarly, Bradshaw and Mayhew (2005) tried to analyse child well-being in the UK over a three-year period using 12 dimensions (such as for example: demography; poverty and deprivation; education; health; lifestyles; etc.).

Beyond the data availability, there is a general consensus about the necessity to include in the analysis positive and negative measures of the child living conditions. The former defines the positive aspects referred to the children living conditions and informs on what society should build to enhance child well-being (OECD, 2009); the latter captures social deficits and highlights the most critical areas that need of attention (OECD, 2009).

Furthermore, the analysis has to be as much as possible child-centered. In most recent years, this has become possible as “the child indicator movement began incorporating child-centred indicators, separating (at least for analytical measurement purposes) the child from his or her family” (Ben-Arieh and Frønes, 2011: 9). This gives us the possibility to monitor directly the well-being of children avoiding to rely only on the use of information on the environment to understand indirectly their living conditions. Another strain of the literature argues that the best way to measure child well-being is to ask directly to children to report on it. The main reason is to give voice to the children and capture directly their point of view and perspective (Redmond, 2009). However, not all the researchers agree on the validity and utility of this approach. On one hand, the answers of the children could be biased by the questions structure. On the other hand, the culture and the children’s limited experience on the representation of well – being are considered to play an important bias on the responses. Thus, it is difficult to think that subjective dimensions could completely substitute the objective dimensions. Instead, it is worth to think that the subjective dimensions could complement the objective dimensions widening the understanding on children good life.

Lastly, as reported by Fernandes *et al.* (2010: 3), there is “an increasing reliance on single composite indexes that can summarize children’s situations, instead of considering several disparate indicators”. Obviously, the elaboration of a singular indicator faces an important trade – off. The process of synthesizing several dimensions into one single index reduces the information available and could be hiding important elements useful to understand the real living conditions of the children in the society. On the other hand, having a single index makes easier the comparison and forceful the communication (Ben-Arieh, 2008). Consequently, this gives us the possibility to provide a quantification of well – being which is international comparable.

For all these reasons, the Report Card 7 represented one of the most interesting and successful examples in terms of quantification and assessment of child well-being in developed societies. Using information from different sources for 21 OECD countries, child well – being was measured on six dimensions: 1) material well-being, 2) education well-being, 3) health and safety, 4) family and peer relationships, 5) behaviours and risks, and 6) subjective well-being. As reported by Bradshaw *et al.* (2007: 11), “all dimensions focus mainly on children’s microsystem, i.e. on the children themselves and the different subsystems that directly impact on their life. Their objective is to represent the conditions children find for their development and participation in society and child outcomes. Belonging to the same system the dimensions are interdependent and interrelated”. The robustness of the results was also confirmed by some later works. For example, Heshmati *et al.* (2007) and Dijkstra (2009) re-computed a child well-being index using more sophisticated algorithms and trying to include more countries and got similar results.

Nonetheless, RC7 presented some important limitations partly driven by the impossibility to measure some dimensions and partly by the data used for the analysis. The Report Card 11 using most recent data repeats and refines the initial experiment of the Report Card 7: developing a measure of overall child well-being for selected advanced economies.

2.2 Methodological aspects of the Report Cards 11

As the Report Card 7, the underlying idea is to build a child well-being index to compare the living conditions of children across advanced economies. The countries under analysis are 35 of which 28 are OECD members. The list of countries includes all the 27 European Union countries, as well as Iceland, Switzerland and Norway, and Australia, Canada, New Zealand, Japan, and United States as non-European countries.

From a methodological point of view, RC11 is built around indicators, components and dimensions. The indicators represent the basis of the analysis and come from different sources. Each component encompasses a group of indicators selected to represent a specific issue, while the dimension is based on an aggregation of components representing a specific area of child well - being.

The analysis is basically developed in three stages:

- First of all, z scores are computed for each indicator; the z-score shows the distance of each observation from the mean value in standard deviations. This statistic gives us the possibility to rank countries while also having an indication of the degree of the dispersion. It is, however, necessary to highlight that z scores are sensible to data availability and could be conditioned by the presence of outliers. To partially cope with these problems, a decision was made to exclude countries with insufficient data establishing a threshold of 75 per cent. In other words, if the total number of indicators employed for our analysis is 30, each country should have at least data for more than 23 indicators. As a result, six countries are excluded from the computation of the child well-being index as Australia, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Malta, Japan¹ and New Zealand.
- Secondly, we aggregate the indicators' z scores by component using a simple average. The decision to avoid the use of different weights for the different indicators lies in the awareness that it is extremely difficult to choose the appropriate weight. In addition, there is no literature that could drive this decision. Consequently, the analysis is based on the implicit assumption that all the indicators have equal importance in defining each component and therefore child well – being.
- Thirdly, the z-scores for the different components are again aggregated using a simple average to obtain the dimension value (z-score).

Table 1. Child well-being structure in the RC11

| DIMENSION | COMPONENT |
|-----------|-----------|
|-----------|-----------|

¹ UNICEF Office of Research at Innocenti and the National Institute of Population and Social Security Research, Tokyo will publish later a separate paper on Japan based on new available data.

| | | |
|---------------------------------|--------------------------------|--|
| CHILD WELL – BEING INDEX | Material Wellbeing | Monetary deprivation Material deprivation |
| | Child health | Health at birth Child mortality Preventive health services |
| | Education | Educational achievement Participation |
| | Behaviour and Risks | Experience of Violence Health behavior Risk behavior |
| | Housing and environment | Overcrowding Environment Housing problems |

As shown in table 1, Report Card 11 uses 13 components aggregated in five the dimensions: Material well-being, Health, Education, Behaviour and risks, Housing and environment.

Minor differences between Report Card 7 and 11 in the variables or data used are discussed in the next sections. Two major differences between the 2 Report Cards should be mentioned upfront.

First, for the EU countries (plus Norway and Iceland) it was possible to construct and use a new variable in the dimension of material well-being. Because of the possibilities offered by the 2009 EU-SILC data, a child deprivation index could be constructed for these countries; for Report Card 7 this possibility did not exist.

Second, subjective well-being is not included as a dimension in the child well-being index in this paper and in Report Card 11. Instead, subjective well-being and its relationship with the child well-being index presented in this paper are discussed in a separate background paper (Bradshaw et al., 2013). There are important conceptual differences between child well-being assessed as well-being along the dimensions in table and child well-being based on self-assessment by the children. In the former case the judgment on the degree of well-being is based on indicators observable for other people; in the latter case the judgment is based on the assessment by the children themselves. While it is plausible that there is a relationship between the two concepts, it is not necessarily a direct and unidirectional one; it may well be that children who are a situation of “objective” well-being, feel unhappy. Equally the opposite can be true: children in relative bad circumstances can still feel happy. Therefore it is important to treat the two concepts empirically separate; not only do they deserve separate and full attention, but also we would be unable to study their interrelations if they were to be lumped together into a single child well-being index.

Finally it should be pointed out that the changes in the Child Well-being index over time between Report 7 and Report Card 11 (largely the first decade of the 21st century) are discussed in a separate paper (Martorano et al., 2013b).

3. Child well-being

In this section, the main findings from the analysis are presented. Each subsection corresponds to a different dimension. The results for the dimensions are presented at the end of the sub – section via a figure which ranks countries according to the z score. For each component the results are summarized via figures – if the indicator is only one or tables if indicators are more than one. In the former case, we use different colours to code the countries according to their ranking for each single indicator. Thus, light blue indicates the best performing group, mid-blue the intermediate performers, while dark blue marks the worst performing group. In the intermediate group, there are countries performing around the average while in the best or the worst groups are countries performing respectively half standard deviation above or below the average. Finally, each table is ordered according to their ranking in the whole component.

3.1 Children’s Material well-being

The previous Report Card highlighted the necessity to analyse poverty in a multi-dimensional way. Using the same approach, material well-being is represented using two components: monetary deprivation and material deprivation. These provide two different ways of looking at poverty. “While money-metric indicators of poverty give an indication of the financial means of the household to satisfy its needs, deprivation indicators provide information on the degree to which some of these needs are actually met” (de Neubourg *et al.*, 2012: 1). Since monetary and material deprivations are complementary, both are needed to get an overall picture of children living conditions in the society

i) Monetary deprivation. The first component is based on two different indicators: relative child poverty and the child poverty gap. Child income poverty has been the topic of two previous Innocenti Report Cards (Report Card 1 and Report Card 6) and a central component of the Report Card 10. As explained in the previous Report Cards, the relative approach is crucial for understanding poverty in non-poor countries since it reflects better the cost of social inclusion and equality of opportunity in a specific time and space. This analysis uses data for 2010 extracted from EUROSTAT for European countries. For the other countries, we have identified other sources to perform a comparative analysis of child income poverty: for Australia, the 2009 Household Income and Living Dynamics in Australia (HILDA); for Canada, the 2009 Survey on Labour and Income Dynamics (SLID); for New Zealand, data are taken from Perry (2011) based on the 2009–2010 Household Economic Survey; for Japan, information have been derived from Cabinet Office, Gender Equality Bureau (2011) which elaborates the microdata from the 2010 Comprehensive Survey of Living Conditions of the ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare; for the United States of America, the 2007 Panel Study on Income Dynamics (PSID). In addition, national sources are integrated with the income data extracted from the Cross National Equivalent File (CNEF) in the case of Australia, Canada and the USA.

The income poverty statistics are based on data on household *disposable income* which is computed by adding the incomes earned by the household from different sources, once taxes have been deducted and public transfers added. The modified-OECD equivalent scale is used in order to be able to compare the incomes of households with different size and composition. According to this equivalent scale, the head of the household is given a score of 1 while each household member aged 14 or more receives a score of 0.5 and each child below 14 is given a score of 0.3. The equivalent household size is obtained by summing up the individual scores. Dividing total household disposable income by the equivalent household size gives

the equivalent disposable household income. A household is then considered income poor, if the equivalent disposable household income is lower than the set poverty threshold.

For the purposes of this study, the relative poverty line is set, for each country, at 50 per cent of the median national disposable income. This is not only the threshold most commonly adopted by OECD for international poverty comparisons, but also the threshold that was used in the previous editions of the Innocenti Report Card series.

Although, for obvious reasons, poverty calculations are carried out at the household level, most of the results presented refer only to children (individuals aged less than 18).

Table 2 summarises the results of the monetary deprivation component based on two indicators: child poverty rate and child poverty gap. Relative child poverty varies from 3.6 per cent in Finland to 23.6 per cent in Romania. Fifteen countries show a child poverty rate lower than 10% while four countries show a child poverty rate higher than 20 per cent. Nordic countries show the lowest poverty rates while the United States, some Southern European countries (e.g. Italy and Spain) and some of the new EU member states (Romania, Bulgaria, Latvia and Lithuania) show higher rates. On the other hand, the poverty gap² ranges between 10 and 40. In particular, Cyprus shows the lowest child poverty gap at 11 per cent while Spain shows the highest gap at 39 per cent.

The combination of these two indicators provides a picture of the monetary conditions in the countries included in our analysis. Austria, Finland, Germany, the Netherlands, Norway, Slovenia and Sweden are in the best performing group while Italy, Lithuania, Romania, Spain and the USA are in the worst performing group for both indicators. Indeed, countries with a higher poverty rate usually also report a higher poverty gap even though there are interesting exceptions such as Denmark and Ireland.

Table 2. Monetary deprivation

| | Child poverty rate | Child poverty gap |
|-----------------------|--------------------|-------------------|
| Finland | 3.6 | 17.0 |
| Netherlands | 5.9 | 15.7 |
| Hungary | 10.0 | 11.7 |
| Austria | 7.8 | 16.5 |
| Luxembourg | 11.8 | 11.3 |
| Norway | 6.6 | 18.7 |
| Sweden | 7.3 | 18.9 |
| Iceland | 6.5 | 20.3 |
| Slovenia | 7.2 | 19.5 |
| France | 9.5 | 18.2 |
| Germany | 9.4 | 19.4 |
| Switzerland | 9.4 | 21.7 |
| Czech Republic | 9.7 | 23.2 |
| United Kingdom | 10.0 | 23.0 |
| Denmark | 6.3 | 29.0 |

² According to the practice of Eurostat, poverty gap is measured as the distance between the poverty line and the median income of the poor population where the distance is expressed as a percentage of the value of the poverty line.

| | | |
|-------------|------|------|
| Belgium | 10.3 | 23.7 |
| Canada | 14.0 | 21.8 |
| Poland | 13.9 | 24.1 |
| Estonia | 11.9 | 29.4 |
| Ireland | 8.5 | 34.3 |
| Greece | 15.3 | 25.7 |
| Portugal | 15.2 | 26.5 |
| Slovakia | 13.2 | 30.0 |
| Italy | 17.0 | 31.0 |
| Latvia | 20.5 | 27.3 |
| Lithuania | 17.9 | 35.6 |
| Romania | 23.6 | 30.6 |
| Spain | 19.7 | 39.0 |
| USA | 23.1 | 37.5 |
| Australia | 10.9 | 13.6 |
| Bulgaria | 21.6 | 31.8 |
| Cyprus | 6.5 | 11.0 |
| Japan | 14.9 | 31.1 |
| Malta | 9.5 | 11.8 |
| New Zealand | 11.7 | 16.0 |

Source: Authors' calculations based on EUROSTAT, HILDA 2009, SLID 2009, SHP 2009, PSID 2007. Results for New Zealand are from Perry (2011) and refer to 2010, while for Japan the data are derived from Cabinet Office, Gender Equality Bureau (2011). **Note:** The light blue indicates the best performing group, the mid-blue the intermediate performers, while the dark blue marks the worst performing group. Lastly, countries are ordered according to their ranking in the whole component (z- score).

b) Material deprivation. As the monetary deprivation, this component is based on two different indicators: the 'lacking child items' index (or deprivation index) and family affluence scale.

The former was a central element of the Report Card 10. Thanks to its introduction, a multi-dimensional perspective was added to the more conventional poverty analysis. The deprivation index was based on the kind of possessions, services and opportunities which could be considered normal for a child growing up in a wealthy country today, as:

1. Three meals a day.
2. At least one meal a day with meat, chicken or fish (or a vegetarian equivalent)
3. Fresh fruits and vegetables every day.
4. Books suitable for the child's age and knowledge level
5. Outdoor leisure equipment (bicycle, roller-skates, etc.).
6. Regular leisure activities (swimming, playing an instrument, etc.).
7. Indoor games (computer games etc.).
8. Money to participate in school trips and events.
9. A quiet place with enough room and light to do homework.
10. An internet connection.
11. Some new clothes (i.e. not all second-hand).
12. Two pairs of properly fitting shoes
13. The opportunity, from time to time, to invite friends home to play and eat.

14. The opportunity to celebrate special occasions, birthdays, etc

The data used are from EU-SILC 2009 for 29 European countries. For the remaining countries not covered by EU SILC (i.e. Australia, Canada, Japan, New Zealand, Switzerland, the USA) no deprivation index could be computed.

In contrast, family affluence scale (FAS score) is an indicator extracted from Currie et al (2012) that used the HBSC survey 2009/2010. Data are available for all countries included in our analysis with the exception of Australia, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Japan, Malta and New Zealand. In particular, we consider the percentage of children (aged 11, 13 and 15) with low family affluence score based on questions referring to several material conditions of the family captured by factors such as car ownership, bedroom occupancy, holidays and home computers (Currie et al., 2012). The inclusion of this indicator provides us with a more complete picture of household material deprivation and children living standards.

Table 3 summarises the results for material deprivation. According to the ‘lacking child items’ index, over 70 per cent of children are deprived in Bulgaria and Romania while less than 3 per cent are in Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Netherland, Norway and Sweden. The percentage of children reporting a low family affluence score varies widely across countries and ranges between 2 per cent in Iceland and Norway and 40 per cent in Romania. Nordic countries are again in the best performing group while Southern and central and Eastern European countries have the lowest FAS scores.

The combination of these two indicators provides a picture of material deprivation. It is interesting to observe that countries’ rankings are fairly stable across the two indicators since they are highly correlated. The only exceptions are Ireland and the UK that fare among the best performing group according to the ‘lacking child items’ index and in the intermediate group according to the FAS index; the opposite can be seen for France and Slovenia. Finally, Czech Republic and Estonia are among the Intermediate performers according to the index of lacking child items but in the worst performing group according to the FAS index; the opposite holds for Portugal.

Table 3. Material deprivation

| | Lacking child items | Family affluence scale |
|--------------------|---------------------|------------------------|
| Iceland | 0.9 | 2.0 |
| Norway | 1.9 | 2.0 |
| Netherlands | 2.7 | 4.0 |
| Denmark | 2.6 | 5.0 |
| Sweden | 1.3 | 6.0 |
| Switzerland | | 6.0 |
| Finland | 2.5 | 7.0 |
| Luxembourg | 4.4 | 6.0 |
| Canada | | 8.0 |
| Slovenia | 8.3 | 7.0 |
| Belgium | 9.1 | 7.2 |
| France | 10.1 | 7.0 |
| Ireland | 4.9 | 10.0 |

| | | |
|----------------|------|------|
| Germany | 8.8 | 8.0 |
| Spain | 8.1 | 9.0 |
| Austria | 8.7 | 9.0 |
| United Kingdom | 5.5 | 10.9 |
| USA | | 11.0 |
| Italy | 13.3 | 13.0 |
| Czech Republic | 8.8 | 17.0 |
| Estonia | 12.4 | 16.0 |
| Greece | 17.2 | 15.0 |
| Portugal | 27.4 | 11.0 |
| Poland | 20.9 | 20.0 |
| Lithuania | 19.8 | 23.0 |
| Slovakia | 19.2 | 26.0 |
| Latvia | 31.8 | 24.0 |
| Hungary | 31.9 | 24.0 |
| Romania | 72.6 | 40.0 |
| Bulgaria | 56.6 | |
| Cyprus | 7.0 | |
| Malta | 8.9 | |

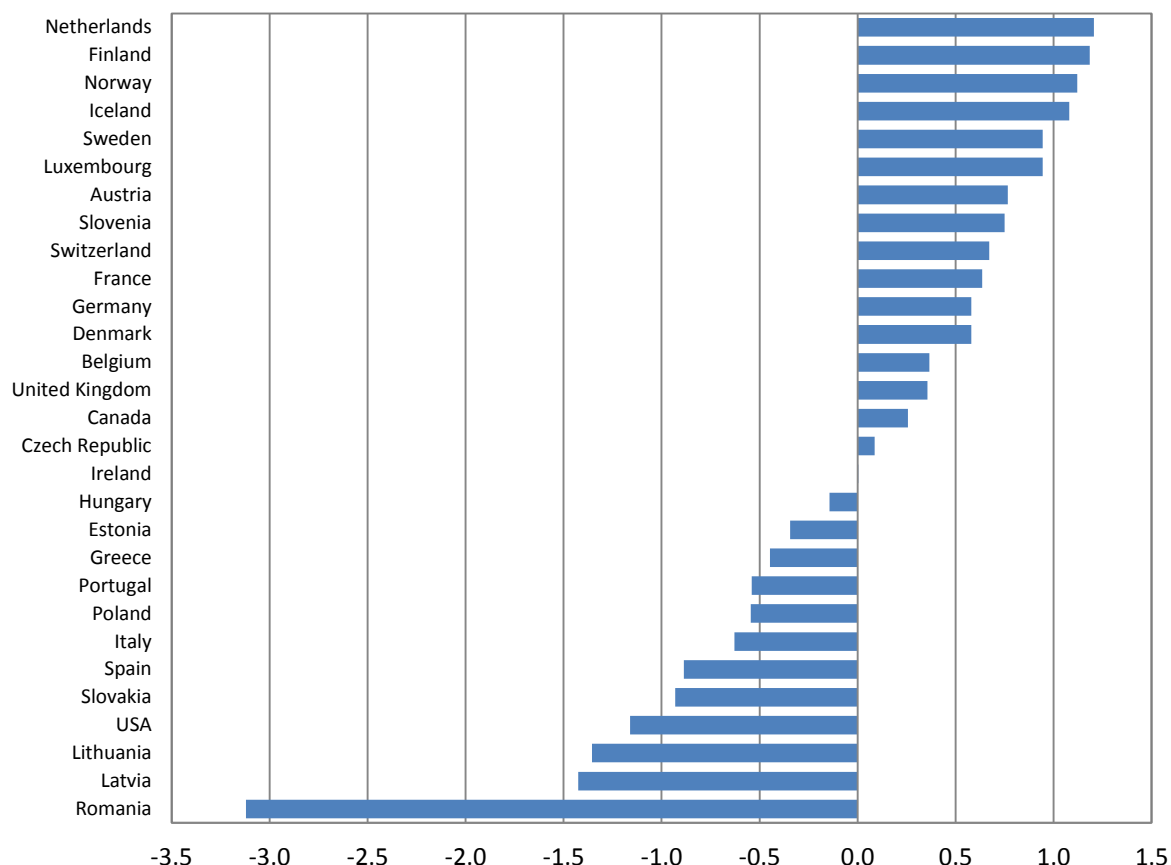
Source: Authors' calculations based on EU SILC 2009 and Currie et al (2012). **Note:** The light blue indicates the best performing group, the mid-blue the intermediate performers, while the dark blue marks the worst performing group. Lastly, countries are ordered according to their ranking in the whole component (z- score).

c) Findings on Children's material well-being. As reported in the Report Card 10, monetary and material deprivations are useful to policymakers, to social scientists, to the media, and to advocates for child well-being. Our analysis is based on a simple aggregation of the two components - monetary and material deprivation - in a new dimension that aims at providing the most complete picture about children's material well-being in advanced economies.

Figure 1 shows the z-scores for the material well-being dimension (i.e. average of z scores of the two components) only for those countries with sufficient data available³. The results confirm the Netherlands and Nordic countries among the best performers. In contrast, the United States and some Eastern European countries (Romania, Latvia and Lithuania) are in the worst performing group. Finally, Figure 1 visually depicts Romania as an outlier, performing much worse than the other countries.

Figure 1. Children's material well-being in rich nations

³ For further details see the methodological section.



Source: Authors' calculations based on different sources. For monetary data: EUROSTAT, HILDA 2009, SLID 2009, SHP 2009, PSID 2007, Perry (2011) and Cabinet Office, Gender Equality Bureau (2011). For deprivation data: EU SILC 2009 and Currie et al (2012).

3.2 Health

The importance of health as a contributor to the overall well-being of children is undisputed; the health of a country's children is indeed widely recognized as a moral, political, economic, and social imperative.

According to the UNCRC, child health is an absolute priority, and every child has the right to the highest attainable standards of physical and mental health, with access to the best possible healthcare and support (art. 24). As children represent the future, societies should be concerned with ensuring a healthy growth and development of their children. Societal investments in child health can in fact provide children around the world an opportunity to live, grow and thrive. The level of child health achieved in a particular country could be interpreted as a proxy for that country's commitment to its children (UNICEF, 2007) and of the resources made available to meet children's needs.

As in the Report Card 7, and in an attempt to cover the whole child life cycle, the health dimension is represented by three components: health at birth, preventive health services and child mortality. However, although the importance of mental and psychological health is clearly recognized, only physical health is considered in this section due to lack of internationally comparable data.

i) Health at birth. Two indicators make up the health at birth component: low birth weight and infant mortality rate. These two indicators are important to understand the health quality for infants in a society (OECD, 2009a). In particular:

- Low birth weight can affect the cognitive and physical child development. It is in fact well-established that it is during early childhood that countries have the opportunity to provide all children a healthy start in life that will influence their lifelong health and well-being. Risk factors for low birth weight include poor health and nutrition of women during pregnancy as well as high maternal age, smoking, drugs and alcohol consumption (OECD, 2009a). Moreover, low birth weight risk increases in multiple gestation pregnancies, in vitro or in vivo fertilization as well as when babies are premature⁴.

This indicator refers to the percentage of babies weighting less than 2500 grams at birth. The data are from OECD and refer to 2009, with some exceptions: for Belgium and Netherlands data refer to 2008; for France data refer to 2007. Data are not available for non OECD countries included in the analysis such as Bulgaria, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta and Romania.

- The infant mortality rate is sometimes used as a proxy for the development status of a country as it sums up many factors influencing children's wellbeing and opportunities for survival; it is often used to monitor health inequalities within and across countries and could also be interpreted as measuring the extent to which countries fail to invest in their next generation. Data are extracted from the World Development Indicators online database and refer to the number of infants dying before reaching one year of age per 1,000 live births in 2010.

Table 4 shows that the prevalence of low birth weight ranges between 4 and 8, with the exception of Japan that records more than 9.5 per cent of babies weighting less than 2500 grams at birth. Lastly, infant mortality rates range between 1.8 (Iceland) and 11.7 (Romania). The worse performing group includes most Central and Eastern European countries and the United States, whereas top performers are mainly Nordic countries plus Luxembourg and Slovenia.

As low birth weight is a major risk factor for perinatal and infant mortality (UNICEF and WHO, 2004), countries with a low/high prevalence of low birth weight are expected to be accompanied by low/high prevalence of infant mortality. This seems to hold in most cases; the first three positions for low birth weight prevalence are again occupied by the three Nordic countries (i.e. Iceland, Sweden and Finland) and followed by Estonia. The United States, Hungary and Slovakia are among the worst performing group.

Table 4. Health at birth component

| | Infant mortality rate | Low birth weight |
|----------------|-----------------------|------------------|
| Iceland | 1.8 | 4.1 |
| Sweden | 2.3 | 4.2 |
| Finland | 2.4 | 4.3 |
| Estonia | 3.2 | 4.5 |
| Ireland | 3.4 | 4.8 |

⁴ The low birth weight indicator does not control for gestational age.

| | | |
|----------------|------|-----|
| Norway | 2.7 | 5.4 |
| Slovenia | 2.3 | 5.9 |
| Netherlands | 3.5 | 5.5 |
| Luxembourg | 2.4 | 6.4 |
| Denmark | 3.3 | 6.1 |
| France | 3.5 | 6.6 |
| Germany | 3.4 | 6.9 |
| Italy | 3.3 | 7 |
| Switzerland | 4.0 | 6.6 |
| Belgium | 3.6 | 6.9 |
| Austria | 3.5 | 7.1 |
| Canada | 5.0 | 6.1 |
| Poland | 5.2 | 6.1 |
| Czech Republic | 3.4 | 7.6 |
| Portugal | 2.9 | 8.2 |
| United Kingdom | 4.5 | 7.1 |
| Spain | 3.7 | 7.8 |
| Lithuania | 5.1 | |
| Slovakia | 6.8 | 7.4 |
| Greece | 3.9 | 9.6 |
| Hungary | 5.7 | 8.4 |
| USA | 6.5 | 8.2 |
| Latvia | 7.6 | |
| Romania | 11.7 | |
| Australia | 4.2 | 6.2 |
| Bulgaria | 11 | |
| Cyprus | 2.8 | |
| Japan | 2.4 | 9.6 |
| Malta | 5.1 | |
| New Zealand | 4.8 | 5.9 |

Source: Authors' calculations based on World Development Indicator and the OECD STATS.

However, Japan is an 'exception' in that it presents one of the highest low birth weight with one of the lowest infant mortality rate. Whereas the prevalence of low birth weight has increased in several OECD countries (OECD, 2009a), Japan is unique among developed countries in that the low birth weight rate has almost doubled in the past three decades (Hokama and Binns, 2009) passing from 5 per cent in the late 1970s to almost 10 per cent in the late 2000s. Possible causes include an increase in smoking among younger women (Ohmi et al., 2001) and the tendency to have children at older ages (Jeong and Hurst, 2001). Similar exceptions are the Czech Republic, Greece, Portugal and Spain that show low infant mortality rates and high percentages of low birth weight.

ii) Preventive health services component. Three indicators are used to analyse the preventive health services component: the percentage of children aged 12-23 months immunized against DPT3, Measles and Polio. In particular, immunization coverage is sometimes used as a proxy for monitoring immunization system as well as overall health

sector performance. Since the immunization systems in all countries is almost or completely free, these indicators are also considered as measure of access to and usage of preventive health services by parents to promote the health of their children (OECD, 2009b).

The data are from The Immunization Summary for 2010 data report jointly produced by the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) and the World Health Organization (WHO). As can be seen in Table 5, most countries have immunization rates for Measles, DPT3 and Polio equal or above 90 per cent. However, there are some exceptions as Austria and Malta that have immunization rates (Measles, DPT3 and Polio) below 90 per cent; Denmark and Cyprus have relatively low measles immunization rates whereas Canada have relatively low DPT3 and Polio. On average, immunization rates are close to 95 per cent. The three indicators used are highly correlated and this is reflected in a fairly stable ranking of top, middle and bottom performers. The only exception is France with an almost universal coverage for DPT3 and Polio while low coverage for Measles.

Table 5. Preventive health services component

| | Measles | DPT3 | Polio |
|-----------------------|---------|------|-------|
| Greece | 99 | 99 | 99 |
| Hungary | 99 | 99 | 99 |
| Czech Republic | 98 | 99 | 99 |
| Finland | 98 | 99 | 99 |
| Slovakia | 98 | 99 | 99 |
| Luxembourg | 96 | 99 | 99 |
| Poland | 98 | 99 | 96 |
| Belgium | 94 | 99 | 99 |
| Sweden | 96 | 98 | 98 |
| Portugal | 96 | 98 | 97 |
| Netherlands | 96 | 97 | 97 |
| Spain | 95 | 97 | 97 |

| | | | |
|----------------|----|----|----|
| France | 90 | 99 | 99 |
| Romania | 95 | 97 | 96 |
| United Kingdom | 93 | 96 | 98 |
| Slovenia | 95 | 96 | 96 |
| Lithuania | 96 | 95 | 95 |
| Iceland | 93 | 96 | 96 |
| Germany | 96 | 93 | 95 |
| Estonia | 95 | 94 | 94 |
| Italy | 90 | 96 | 96 |
| Switzerland | 90 | 96 | 95 |
| USA | 92 | 95 | 93 |
| Norway | 93 | 93 | 93 |
| Ireland | 90 | 94 | 94 |
| Latvia | 93 | 89 | 89 |
| Denmark | 85 | 90 | 90 |
| Canada | 93 | 80 | 80 |
| Austria | 76 | 83 | 83 |
| Australia | 94 | 92 | 92 |
| Bulgaria | 97 | 94 | 96 |
| Cyprus | 87 | 99 | 99 |
| Japan | 94 | 98 | 98 |
| Malta | 73 | 76 | 76 |
| New Zealand | 91 | 93 | 93 |

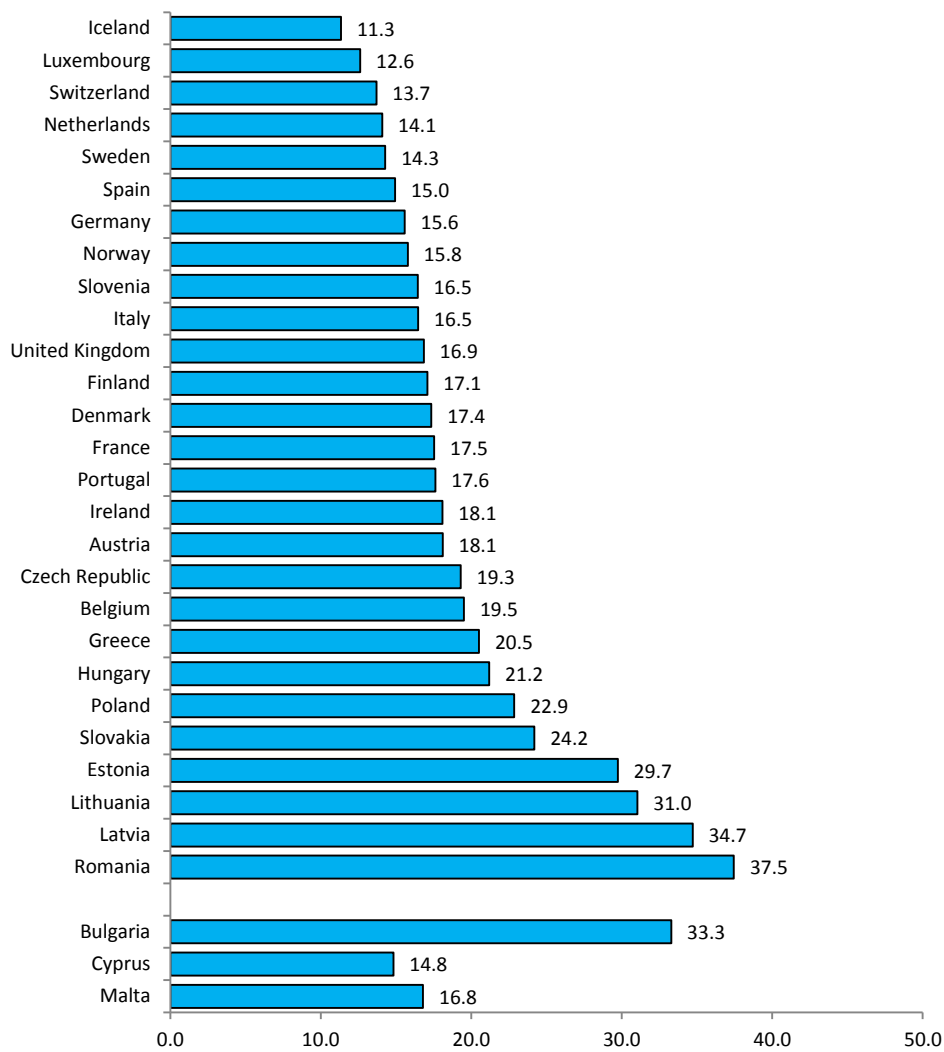
Source: UNICEF and WHO (2012)

iii) Child mortality. The relationship between child mortality and age tends to have a U-shaped pattern, with mortality rates being high among youngest and oldest children relatively to mortality during middle childhood (OECD, 2009b). The leading causes of death, however, might significantly differ by age: as children gets older, non-health related causes of death rise in importance. For instance, late childhood mortality is more likely to be caused by external causes such as accidents and violence rather than health-related causes as in early childhood. If this were the case then this indicator would be spurious capturing various causes of child mortality and not only health related deaths (as expected from the health component).

This kind of indicator was already part of the RC 2 which focuses on children's accidental death and the RC 5 which focuses on child maltreatment death. In the RC 11, the component is composed by only one indicator which is the child death rate (per 100,000) between 1 – 19 years old. The data are from the EU - WHO European Mortality Database and refer to 2010 with the exception of: France, Greece, Hungary, Iceland and Italy for which data refer to 2009; Belgium and Denmark for which data refer to 2006.

To present the results, a league table in the Report Card style is used. Figure 2 shows that in eight countries the child mortality rate (1-19) is higher than 20 per 100,000. This group is primarily composed by some Central and Eastern European countries plus Greece. In the other countries, the prevalence of child deaths ranges between 11 and 20 per 100,000. Iceland presents the lowest rate at 11.3 per 100,000.

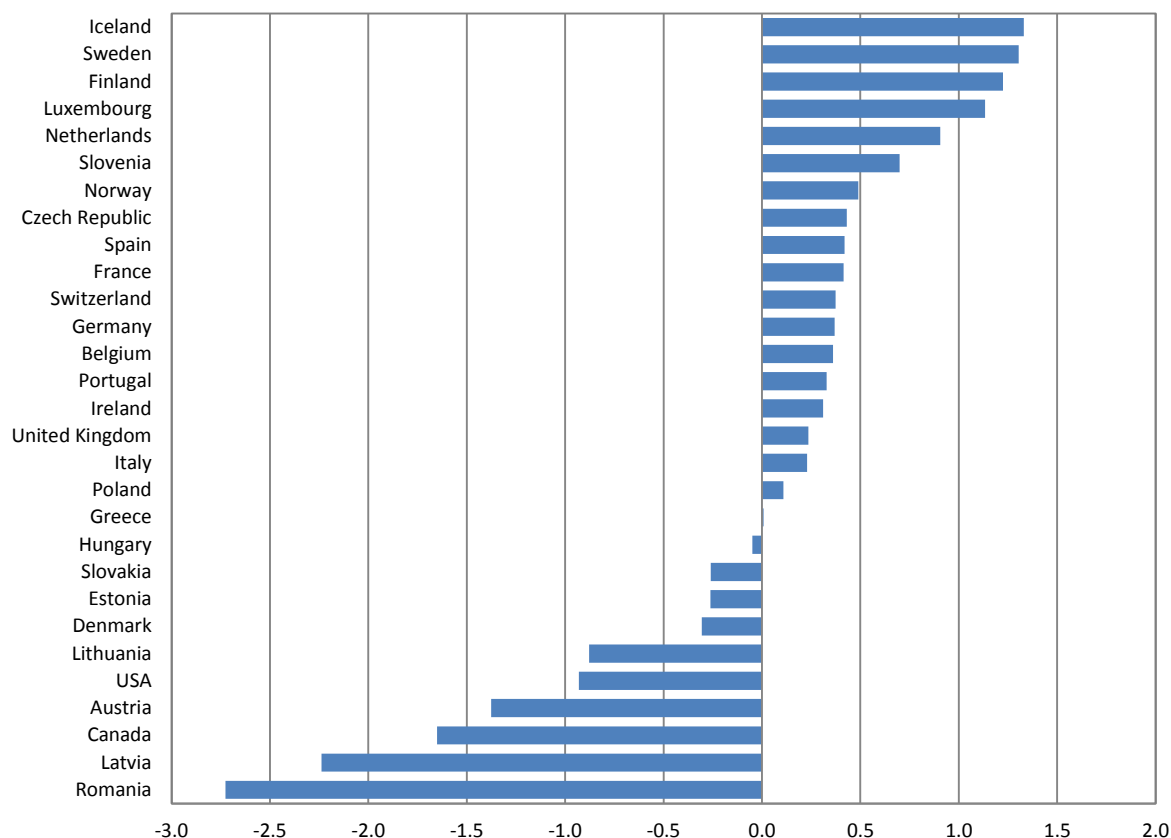
Figure 2. Child mortality rate around 2010



Source: EU - WHO data (European Mortality database)

iv) Findings in the Health Dimension. As reported above, this dimension is represented by three components: health at birth, preventive health services and child mortality. The aim is to use available data to provide the most complete picture on children's health conditions in the advanced economies considering elements affecting both child's cognitive and physical development. Figure 3 shows the health dimension results based again on the average of the z scores for the three health components distributed around the mean of zero for those countries with enough data only. The results show that Sweden, Iceland, Finland, Luxembourg and the Netherlands are the best performing countries. In contrast the United States and some Eastern European countries (Romania, Latvia and Lithuania) are in the worst performing group. Also Austria and Canada perform relatively worse than the average. This result is explained by the bad results recorded by these countries in the preventive health services component.

Figure 3. Children's health in rich nations



Source: Authors' calculations based on different sources as World Development Indicator, OECD, UNICEF and WHO (2012) and EU WHO European Mortality Database.

3.3 Education

If the family is the first environment contributing to the process of child cognitive development, school is surely the second one. Article 28 of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Children ratifies that children have the right to free education and should be “encouraged to reach the highest level of education they are capable of”. Education provides children with the skills required ‘to be able to survive, to develop their full capacities, to live and work in dignity, to participate fully in development, to improve the quality of their lives, to make informed decisions, and to continue learning’ (UNESCO, 2000: 17). As a result, education has an immediate as well as a long-term impact on child well – being, as it helps determining children’s life chances and opportunities.

Consequently, focus will be given not only to access to education (usually measured by enrollment and/or attendance rates and so on) but also to the quality of education systems. Thus, the education dimension encompasses two components: participation in education and achievements that measure the quality of the acquired competencies.

i) Participation. As explained in the Report Card 7, participation in education could be better considered a measure of well-becoming rather than well-being. As compulsory education has become virtually universal, it is particularly interesting to observe school participation across European countries in non-compulsory school times. Therefore, two of the three indicators of the ‘participation’ component concentrate on early childhood education and on youth

education. The third indicator is the percentage of young people (aged 15 – 19) neither in employment nor in any education and training.

Early childhood education is extremely important as evidence shows that children who attend pre-schools tend to perform better than those who have not (OECD, 2011a). Moreover, it helps to build a strong foundation for achieving success in school and in life as well as to combat educational disadvantages. Data refer to the age group between 4-years-old and the starting age of compulsory education. They refer to 2010 and are extracted from the EUROSTAT database and are therefore available for all the European countries plus Japan and USA but not for Australia, Canada and New Zealand. Table 6 shows that early childhood education is universal in France while it is at its lowest level in Finland (73.1 per cent). However, the majority of the countries have a percentage of participation higher than 90 per cent and almost one third of them have a percentage of participation higher than 95 per cent. In contrast to the previous indicators, in this case Italy and Spain are among the five best performing countries while Finland is in the worst performing group.

Enrolment rates are used for education of young people aged 15-19. For children, the transition from primary to secondary education is associated with more opportunities in the adult life. From a macroeconomic perspective, broad-based access to post-primary education can translate into gains in term of economic productivity and welfare for the entire society. The data are extracted from OECD (2011) and EUROSTAT database and they are not available for Japan and Iceland. They refer to 2010 for Bulgaria, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Norway and Romania, 2008 for Greece and Luxembourg, 2009 for the remaining countries. Table 6 shows that only in five countries (Belgium, Ireland, Lithuania, Poland and Slovenia) the enrollment rate is higher than 90 per cent while in four countries it is lower than 80 per cent (Austria, Luxembourg, Romania and the United Kingdom); the worst performing country is the United Kingdom where only 73.7 per cent of the population enrolled in education. In the remaining countries, 8-9 students out of 10 participate in the education system.

Lastly, the percentage of young people (aged 15 – 19) neither in employment nor in any education and training (NEET rates) provides us information not only referred to the functioning of the educational systems but also of the labour market. Indeed, a high rate could be related to the difficult school-to-work-transitions (OECD, 2011b) as well as to the bad performance of youth labour market (Quintini and Martin, 2006). Especially in countries characterised by rigid labour market institutions and matching problems between demand and supply of labour, young people may have difficulties finding a job and may drop out of the labour force due to discouragement (The Moving Project, 2010). Moreover, it is usually to observe that the NEET rate increase during the time of economic crisis when youth is particularly vulnerable and usually hardest hit (European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, 2011). Data for the NEET rate are from the OECD (2011) and EUROSTAT database and they refer to 2010 in the case of Bulgaria, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Norway and Romania and 2009 in the remaining countries. Data are not available only for Iceland and Japan. Table 6 shows that Denmark, Norway and Slovenia perform much better than other countries, while the worst performing group includes Eastern European countries and some of the major European economies (France, Italy, Spain and the United Kingdom).

Table 6. Participation component

| | early childhood education | Staying on | NEET |
|----------------|---------------------------|------------|------|
| Netherlands | 99.6 | 89.7 | 3.6 |
| Belgium | 99.1 | 93.2 | 5.7 |
| Slovenia | 92.0 | 91.1 | 2.5 |
| Norway | 97.1 | 85.9 | 2.3 |
| Germany | 96.2 | 88.5 | 3.8 |
| Denmark | 98.1 | 83.6 | 2.9 |
| Hungary | 94.3 | 89.9 | 5.6 |
| Czech Republic | 88.7 | 89.2 | 3.5 |
| Sweden | 95.1 | 87.0 | 5.5 |
| Iceland | 95.8 | 84.9 | |
| Poland | 76.3 | 92.7 | 3.6 |
| France | 100.0 | 84.0 | 6.9 |
| Lithuania | 78.3 | 91.4 | 4.1 |
| Latvia | 87.4 | 88.8 | 8.0 |
| Portugal | 89.3 | 84.6 | 6.9 |
| Luxembourg | 94.6 | 75.3 | 3.5 |
| Estonia | 89.8 | 84.6 | 8.0 |
| Ireland | 85.4 | 92.1 | 11.0 |
| Slovakia | 77.5 | 85.1 | 4.5 |
| Austria | 92.1 | 79.4 | 6.5 |
| Finland | 73.1 | 86.9 | 5.1 |
| Italy | 97.1 | 81.8 | 11.2 |
| Switzerland | 78.6 | 84.7 | 7.9 |
| Spain | 99.4 | 81.4 | 13.4 |
| Canada | | 81.1 | 8.1 |
| United Kingdom | 96.7 | 73.7 | 9.6 |
| Greece | 73.5 | 82.7 | 7.9 |
| USA | 74.4 | 80.9 | 8.8 |
| Romania | 82.1 | 76.4 | 9.9 |
| Australia | | 80.0 | 8.3 |
| Bulgaria | 79.2 | 75.5 | 15.6 |
| Cyprus | 87.7 | 71.7 | 6.7 |
| Japan | 97.9 | | |
| Malta | 89.0 | 67.3 | 9.2 |
| New Zealand | | 80.6 | 12.4 |

Source: EUROSTAT database and OECD (2011)

In order to get an idea about countries' overall performance in the participation component, it is useful to compare their ranking across the three indicators. As can be seen in Table 6, there is a heterogeneous ranking pattern across indicators. Only Germany and the Netherlands are stable in the best performing group for all the indicators; Romania and the United States, on the other hand, ranks consistently in the worst performing group.

ii) Education Achievement. In order to measure educational achievement, three indicators were extracted from the 2009 OECD PISA survey: namely reading, mathematical and scientific literacy achievements. The data are available for all countries included in our analysis with the only exception of Cyprus and Malta.

As can be seen in Table 7, the educational achievement indicators are highly correlated; consequently, there is not much variation in top, middle and bottom performing groups across the three indicators. With the exception of the USA, the other non-European countries included in our analysis are in the best performing group and in particular always in the first ten positions. Among European countries, only Finland and the Netherlands are always in the best performing group showing the highest scores in all the indicators. On the other hand, Romania and Spain are consistently among the worst performing countries for all indicators. Other countries performing poorly are two Central and Eastern European (Lithuania and Slovakia), two South European countries (Greece and Italy) and finally Luxembourg. For the latter country, the explanation seems to be related to the co-existence of three languages of instruction which make more complicated the process of learning (Carey and Ernst, 2006). These problems are especially evident in the case of students from immigrants that are more likely to fare worse than native students.

Table 7. Educational achievement component

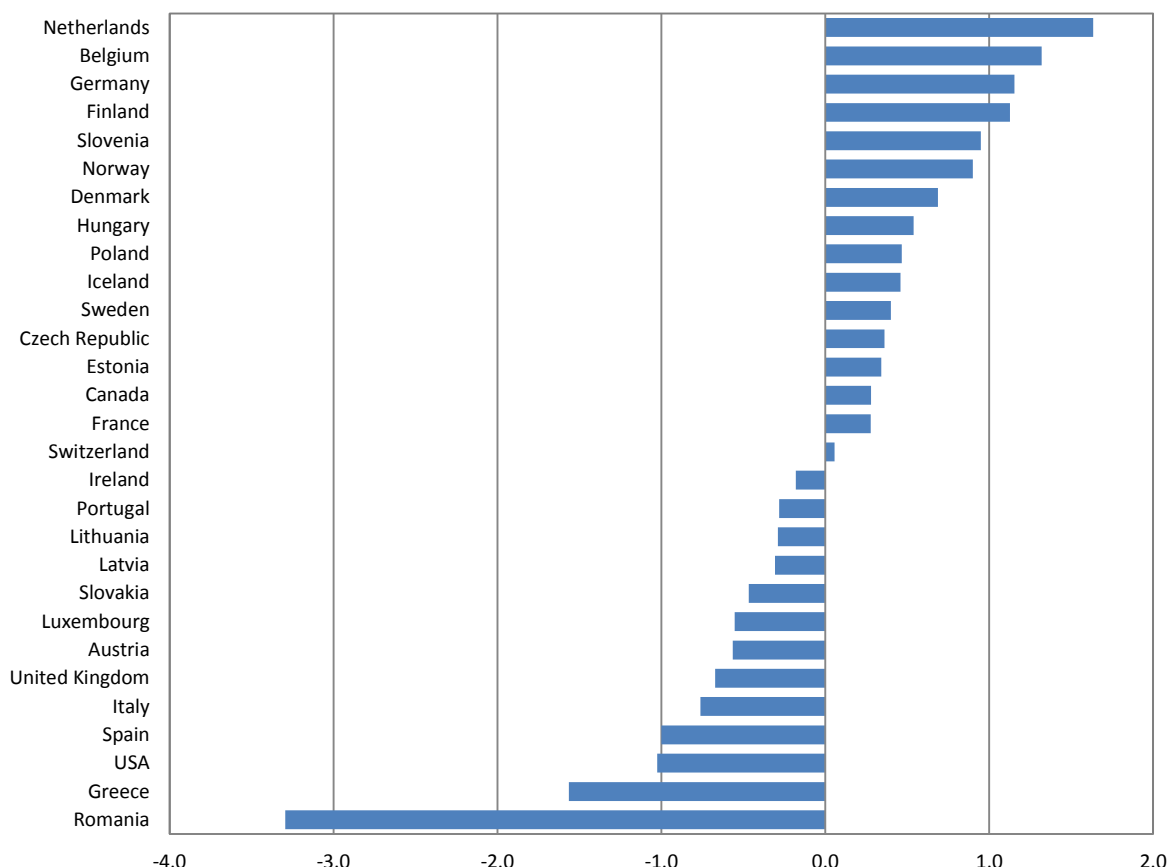
| | Reading literacy achievement | Mathematics literacy achievement | Science literacy achievement |
|--------------------|---------------------------------|--|---------------------------------|
| Finland | 535.9 | 540.5 | 554.1 |
| Canada | 524.2 | 526.8 | 528.7 |
| Netherlands | 508.4 | 525.8 | 522.2 |
| Switzerland | 500.5 | 534.0 | 516.6 |
| Estonia | 501.0 | 512.1 | 527.8 |
| Germany | 497.3 | 512.8 | 520.4 |

| | | | |
|----------------|-------|-------|-------|
| Belgium | 506.0 | 515.3 | 506.6 |
| Poland | 500.5 | 494.8 | 508.1 |
| Iceland | 500.3 | 506.7 | 495.6 |
| Norway | 503.2 | 498.0 | 499.9 |
| United Kingdom | 494.2 | 492.4 | 513.7 |
| Denmark | 494.9 | 503.3 | 499.3 |
| Slovenia | 483.1 | 501.5 | 511.8 |
| Ireland | 495.6 | 487.1 | 508.0 |
| France | 495.6 | 496.8 | 498.2 |
| USA | 499.8 | 487.4 | 502.0 |
| Sweden | 497.5 | 494.2 | 495.1 |
| Hungary | 494.2 | 490.2 | 502.6 |
| Czech Republic | 478.2 | 492.8 | 500.5 |
| Portugal | 489.3 | 486.9 | 493.0 |
| Slovakia | 477.4 | 496.7 | 490.3 |
| Latvia | 484.0 | 482.0 | 493.9 |
| Austria | 470.3 | 495.9 | 494.3 |
| Italy | 486.1 | 482.9 | 488.8 |
| Spain | 481.0 | 483.5 | 488.3 |
| Luxembourg | 472.2 | 489.1 | 483.9 |
| Lithuania | 468.4 | 476.6 | 491.4 |
| Greece | 482.8 | 466.1 | 470.1 |
| Romania | 424.5 | 427.1 | 428.2 |
| Australia | 514.9 | 514.3 | 527.3 |
| Bulgaria | 429.1 | 428.1 | 439.3 |
| Japan | 519.9 | 529.0 | 539.4 |
| New Zealand | 520.9 | 519.3 | 532.0 |

Source: OECD PISA (2009) reported in EdStats World -Bank

iii) Findings in the Education Dimension. As illustrated above, this dimension is represented by the combination of the quantitative and qualitative aspects of education. Figure 4 shows the average z scores for the education dimension: Nordic European countries, plus the Netherlands, Belgium and Germany are in the best performing group. It is noticeable that some Central and Eastern European countries such as Slovenia, Hungary, Poland, the Czech Republic and Estonia perform above the average. In contrast, Romania is the worst performer followed by Greece and USA.

Figure 4. Children's education in rich nations



Source: Authors' calculations based on different sources as EUROSTAT, OECD (2011) and OECD PISA (2009) reported in EdStats World Bank.

3.4 Behaviour and risks

In order to analyse well-being, it is important not to overlook children lifestyle. In particular, it is interesting to analyse how children interact with each other and how they behave out of the family environment. Especially during adolescence, young people often engage in risky behaviors or situations negatively affecting their well-being just to be accepted by their peers.

Based on these considerations, this dimension is made up of three components: health behaviours, risk behaviours and experience of violence.

i) Health behaviours. This component aims at capturing child behaviour and its impact on child's health, focusing mainly on nutrition and physical activity. In particular, four indicators are selected that capture the percentage of young aged 11, 13 and 15 who:

- eat breakfast every school day,
- eat fruit every day,
- report at least one hour of moderate-to-vigorous physical activity daily
- are overweight according to the BMI.

Data are extracted from Currie et al (2012). The report provides disaggregated data by age and sex in all countries. To determine the national value we computed a weighted average

using population shares – with data taken from the World Bank database’s Health Nutrition Population Statistics (HNP Stats). In the case of Belgium data are available for Flemish and French Belgium whereas in the case of the United Kingdom data are available for England, Wales and Scotland. Thus, Belgium⁵ and UK estimates were computed using also information on the share of the subnational population extracted from the respective national statistical offices. The same procedure was carried out for all the indicators extracted from Currie et al (2012). Lastly, data are missing in the case of Australia, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Japan, Malta and New Zealand

The first two indicators (eat breakfast every school day and eat fruit every day) depict healthy nutrition. The relevance of these indicators relies on the fact that eating habits affect the process of cognitive and physical development (Currie *et al.*, 2012). In addition, it is necessary to highlight that they are likely to be carried through into adulthood (Merten et al., 2009 as cited in Currie *et al.*, 2012).

As can be noticed in Table 8, the percentage of young people who eat breakfast every school day ranges between 43 and 85 per cent. However, four countries – two at the top and two at the bottom of the ranking - could be considered as outliers. On one hand, Romania and Slovenia report the lowest rates, respectively 45.3 and 43.6 per cent, meaning that almost 6 out of ten children skip breakfast. On the other hand, the Netherlands and Portugal report the highest rates, respectively 85.1 and 83.2 per cent. In this last case, it is interesting to observe that the next countries have rates 10 percentage points lower.

Table 8 also shows that less than one out of two children eats fruit every day in all countries. Denmark presents the highest percentage - slightly lower than 50 per cent – while Finland shows the lowest value since just one out of four children eats fruit every day.

In terms of physical activity, research has demonstrated it is critical for both physical and mental health; it can help preventing and treating a number of youth related health problems such as asthma, obesity, anxiety and depression and has therefore both short and long-term impacts (OECD, 2009; Currie *et al.*, 2012). International recommendations (e.g by WHO) consider 60 minutes of moderate-to-vigorous physical activity daily as the minimum standard. Table 8 shows that a significant proportion of children do not undertake the minimum recommended levels of physical activity daily: the percentage of youth who report at least one hour of moderate - to - vigorous physical activity daily ranges between 10 and 30 per cent. Ireland shows the highest rate (28.6 per cent) followed by USA (26.3 per cent) and Austria (24.8 per cent). In 16 countries less than two children out of 10 do at least one hour of physical activity daily. Italy stands out at the lower end (8.3 per cent).

As discussed in Currie *et al.*, (2012) the lack of a healthy diet and physical exercise are both correlated with obesity problems. This phenomenon is particularly acute in the USA where almost 3 out of 10 children are overweight according to the BMI. In the rest of the countries, the same percentage ranges between 8.4 per cent and 21 per cent. Results need however to be interpreted with caution given that height and weight data used to compute BMI were self-reported (Currie *et al.*, 2012).

When looking at the overall performance of countries in the health behaviours component, the scenario is fairly heterogeneous. In particular, there are no countries that are consistently

⁵ In the Belgium case, the population in the Brussels-Capital Region is considered half Flemish and half French.

in the best performing group for all the indicators. Overall, Denmark performs better than other countries, while Greece is in the worst performing group for three out of four indicators.

Table 8. Health behaviours component

| | Obesity | Eating fruit | Eating breakfast every school day | Physical exercise |
|----------------|---------|--------------|-----------------------------------|-------------------|
| Netherlands | 8.4 | 32.5 | 85.1 | 19.1 |
| Denmark | 9.3 | 48.6 | 73.5 | 11.7 |
| Ireland | 15.5 | 36.6 | 71.5 | 28.6 |
| Norway | 12.1 | 41.9 | 69.4 | 14.8 |
| Portugal | 18.7 | 43.9 | 83.2 | 13.9 |
| United Kingdom | 12.4 | 38.2 | 61.1 | 21.3 |
| Belgium | 10.9 | 36.7 | 69.7 | 16.6 |
| Spain | 16.9 | 38.3 | 65.3 | 23.8 |
| Austria | 14.1 | 39.9 | 53.1 | 24.8 |
| Luxembourg | 14.0 | 39.0 | 58.3 | 22.5 |
| Canada | 20.2 | 44.2 | 61.2 | 22.8 |
| Czech Republic | 14.9 | 41.1 | 53.0 | 23.0 |
| France | 10.6 | 39.1 | 66.5 | 12.1 |
| Switzerland | 8.7 | 42.4 | 55.5 | 12.1 |
| Germany | 13.2 | 36.5 | 65.5 | 17.1 |
| Slovakia | 13.0 | 36.2 | 53.1 | 22.6 |
| Iceland | 14.0 | 34.2 | 71.8 | 16.2 |
| Latvia | 10.7 | 26.7 | 62.3 | 20.2 |
| Sweden | 11.8 | 27.8 | 73.3 | 13.6 |
| Finland | 15.5 | 24.4 | 67.5 | 23.0 |
| Romania | 14.8 | 40.6 | 45.3 | 19.6 |
| Hungary | 15.2 | 34.8 | 51.1 | 19.5 |
| Poland | 16.9 | 30.1 | 59.9 | 20.3 |
| Slovenia | 17.9 | 39.6 | 43.6 | 20.3 |
| Lithuania | 10.8 | 25.6 | 56.6 | 16.4 |
| Italy | 17.3 | 41.3 | 61.9 | 8.3 |
| USA | 29.4 | 42.4 | 50.6 | 26.3 |
| Estonia | 14.7 | 26.2 | 64.6 | 14.1 |
| Greece | 21.0 | 33.7 | 51.0 | 14.3 |

Source: Authors' calculations based on Currie et al (2012).

ii) Risk behaviours. The probability of adopting risk behaviors increase in the early adolescence since the possibility to spend more time out of the protective environment of the family and the necessity to move toward the adult life. Risk behaviors, such as misuse of alcohol or other drugs, can be defined as behaviours that place the child at risk for adverse consequences and therefore pose a threat to its well-being. Moreover, it is necessary to highlight that these kinds of behaviours can lead to both short as well as long-term negative impacts.

Four indicators are used to provide a snapshot of youth risk-taking behaviours: cigarettes, alcohol and cannabis consumption as well as teenage fertility rate. Data for the latter indicator are extracted from the World Development Indicator database and refer to 2009. All remaining data are extracted from Currie et al (2012) and elaborated as explained above. Data are available for all countries included in our analysis with the exception of Australia, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Japan, Malta and New Zealand; for the consumption of cannabis, data is also missing for Sweden

The negative effects of tobacco use on health are well-known. Obviously, the risk increase for young people and can cause early heart diseases as well as hindering the natural development of lungs that may not reach their full capacity (Elders *et al.*, 1994). Table 9 shows the percentage of young people (aged 11, 13 and 15) who smoke cigarettes at least once a week. Eastern European countries present a higher consumption of cigarettes than other countries. Latvia shows the highest percentage (13.4 per cent) while Iceland shows the lowest value (3.2 per cent) of children smoking cigarettes at least once a week.

Negative consequences of risky drinking are related to the psychological, social and physical health (Windle, 2003). The indicator ranges between 6.4 per cent in USA, the best performer country, and 26.8 in Lithuania. At least one in five children (aged 11, 13 and 15) has been drunk more than twice in Estonia, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Latvia, Finland. With the sole exception of Spain, Southern European countries are in the top performing group, whereas Central and Eastern European countries perform below the middle of the ranking. Table 9 also shows the percentage of young people (aged 11, 13 and 15) who report having used cannabis in the last 12 months. The rate ranges between 4.5 per cent in Norway and 28 per cent in Canada.

Last indicator analysed the adolescent fertility rate (births per 1,000 women ages 15-19). Evidence has shown that adolescent fertility rates are associated with several short and long-term disadvantages for the mother and for her child. Among impacts of early childbearing on children are: higher likelihood to live in poverty, be raised in a single parent family without father, lower educational performance etc. (UNICEF IRC, 2001). Notwithstanding higher education levels, more career opportunities and more effective contraception, teen birth rate is still high in many developed countries. Table 9 shows that it is higher than 20 per cent in New Zealand and the United Kingdom and even higher than 30 per cent in Romania and the USA. However, in the vast majority of countries it is lower than 15 per cent while in Slovenia, the Netherlands and Switzerland, it is lower than 5 per cent.

Looking at the overall performance of countries across the risk behaviours indicators, it can be noticed that no countries remain stable in the same performing group for all the indicators apart from Norway that is the top performer.

Table 9. Risk behaviours component

| | Adolescent fertility rate | Smoking | Drink | Drugs |
|----------------|---------------------------|---------|-------|-------|
| Norway | 8.3 | 3.8 | 10.8 | 4.5 |
| Iceland | 13.4 | 3.2 | 6.7 | 7.0 |
| Sweden | 6.2 | 6.4 | 10.2 | 5.5 |
| Greece | 10.8 | 6.4 | 10.0 | 6.6 |
| Germany | 7.5 | 6.2 | 11.8 | 8.6 |
| Netherlands | 4.7 | 6.7 | 7.1 | 17.0 |
| Portugal | 15.1 | 4.9 | 9.9 | 10.1 |
| Ireland | 14.0 | 5.6 | 12.2 | 13.1 |
| Italy | 5.6 | 9.5 | 7.2 | 16.6 |
| Luxembourg | 9.4 | 9.0 | 8.0 | 15.0 |
| Denmark | 5.6 | 5.9 | 23.5 | 11.5 |
| Belgium | 13.0 | 6.9 | 11.4 | 16.1 |
| Switzerland | 4.3 | 7.7 | 10.9 | 24.1 |
| France | 6.7 | 9.0 | 9.0 | 22.5 |
| Slovenia | 4.8 | 7.7 | 17.8 | 18.0 |
| Poland | 13.8 | 7.9 | 15.3 | 14.6 |
| Austria | 11.6 | 11.7 | 14.5 | 10.0 |
| Finland | 9.3 | 9.0 | 25.0 | 8.0 |
| Canada | 12.9 | 4.0 | 15.7 | 28.0 |
| Spain | 11.9 | 8.2 | 14.1 | 24.1 |
| USA | 35.7 | 4.1 | 6.4 | 22.0 |
| Hungary | 15.4 | 11.8 | 18.6 | 10.5 |
| Slovakia | 18.8 | 10.3 | 17.5 | 13.0 |
| Romania | 30.7 | 10.6 | 17.5 | 6.1 |
| United Kingdom | 29.7 | 5.6 | 19.7 | 17.4 |
| Estonia | 20.5 | 9.5 | 21.9 | 14.7 |
| Czech Republic | 10.3 | 13.1 | 22.5 | 21.5 |
| Lithuania | 18.3 | 12.9 | 26.8 | 14.2 |
| Latvia | 15.9 | 13.4 | 24.7 | 18.5 |
| Australia | 14.9 | | | |
| Bulgaria | 40.2 | | | |
| Cyprus | 6.1 | | | |
| Japan | 5.4 | | | |
| Malta | 15.1 | | | |
| New Zealand | 26.0 | | | |

Source: Authors' calculations based on Currie et al (2012) and World Development Indicator database. For Finland only 13 and 15 years old

iii) Experience of violence. To define this component we use two indicators related to school violence: in particular, fighting and bullying problems measured respectively by the percentage of young people (aged 11, 13 and 15) involved in fighting in last 12 months and reporting being bullied in last 2 months.

Physical fighting is usually related to intentional injury, and might lead to serious injuries requiring medical attention and/or hospitalization (Currie *et al.*, 2012). Bullying is increasingly considered a concern not only for the victims but also for the bully/perpetrator; in general victims of physical and/or mental bullying might experience negative consequences in terms of their psychosocial, educational and physical well-being; in fact they are more likely to be depressed and/or anxious; to report asocial behaviours and poor school performance or drop out (Currie *et al.*, 2012; Moore *et al.*, 2008).

Data are from Currie *et al.* (2012). They are available for all countries included in our analysis with the exception of Australia, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Japan, Malta and New Zealand. According to Table 10, almost one out of two young Greek people was involved in fighting in the last 12 months while in Germany less than one out of four. About the phenomena of bullying, it is interesting to observe that more than 50 per cent of the children reports being bullied in Lithuania. This rate is also high by international standards and namely higher than 40 per cent in other five countries (Austria, Belgium, Estonia, Latvia and Romania). Only Sweden, Switzerland and Italy have a rate lower than 15 per cent.

Combining these two indicators, we have the violence experience component. It is interesting to observe that four countries are always in the best performing group: Sweden, Denmark, Iceland and the Netherlands. In contrast three countries recorded performance well below the average as Belgium, Latvia and Romania. However, Lithuania is the worst performer countries even though the value for the fighting indicator is included in the intermediate group.

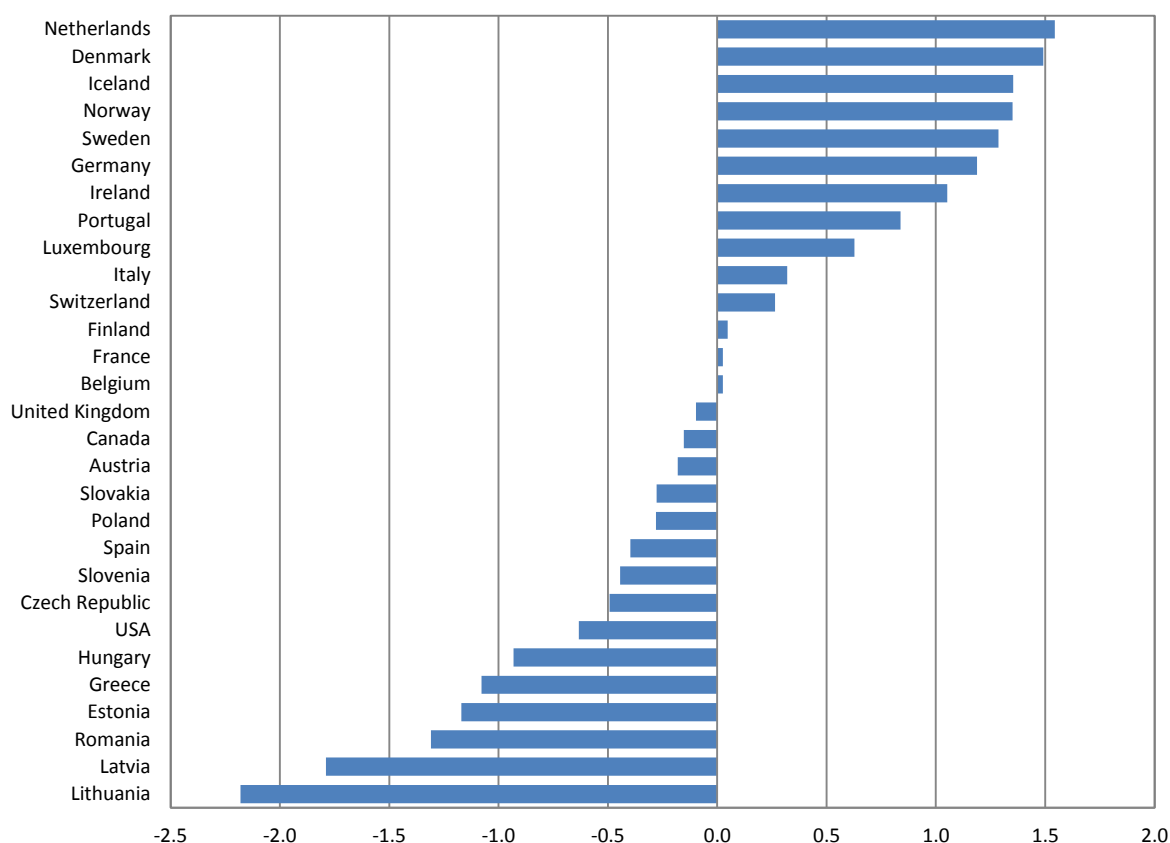
Table 10. Experience of violence component

| | Fighting | Being bullied |
|----------------|----------|---------------|
| Sweden | 31.0 | 11.8 |
| Denmark | 30.2 | 19.3 |
| Italy | 36.0 | 10.9 |
| Germany | 23.0 | 30.0 |
| Iceland | 31.7 | 19.0 |
| Finland | 28.3 | 30.1 |
| Netherlands | 33.3 | 24.3 |
| Norway | | 25.9 |
| Luxembourg | 32.0 | 30.0 |
| USA | 34.0 | 27.5 |
| Poland | 35.6 | 25.9 |
| Switzerland | 29.0 | 36.1 |
| Ireland | 35.3 | 28.0 |
| Portugal | 28.6 | 38.3 |
| United Kingdom | 36.0 | 27.9 |
| Czech Republic | 44.8 | 15.7 |
| Slovenia | 42.2 | 20.3 |
| Slovakia | 38.7 | 26.3 |
| Estonia | 29.9 | 40.3 |
| France | 35.4 | 34.0 |
| Canada | 35.8 | 35.0 |
| Hungary | 43.3 | 27.6 |
| Austria | 36.7 | 40.3 |
| Belgium | 39.1 | 37.7 |
| Spain | 55.4 | 14.7 |
| Greece | 49.3 | 27.7 |
| Romania | 42.4 | 41.0 |
| Latvia | 43.1 | 46.1 |
| Lithuania | 38.5 | 53.6 |

Source: Authors' calculations based on Currie et al (2012). For Switzerland, only 15 years old

iv) Findings from behaviour and lifestyles dimension. Figure 5 shows the behaviour and lifestyles dimension. As in the previous dimension Nordic and Western European countries are in the best performing group, while Southern and Central - Eastern European countries are in the worst performing group. The exceptions are represented by Austria which is in the bottom part of the ranking and Portugal and Italy which are in the top of the ranking. Canada and the USA are in an intermediate position.

Figure 5. Children's behaviour and lifestyles in rich nations



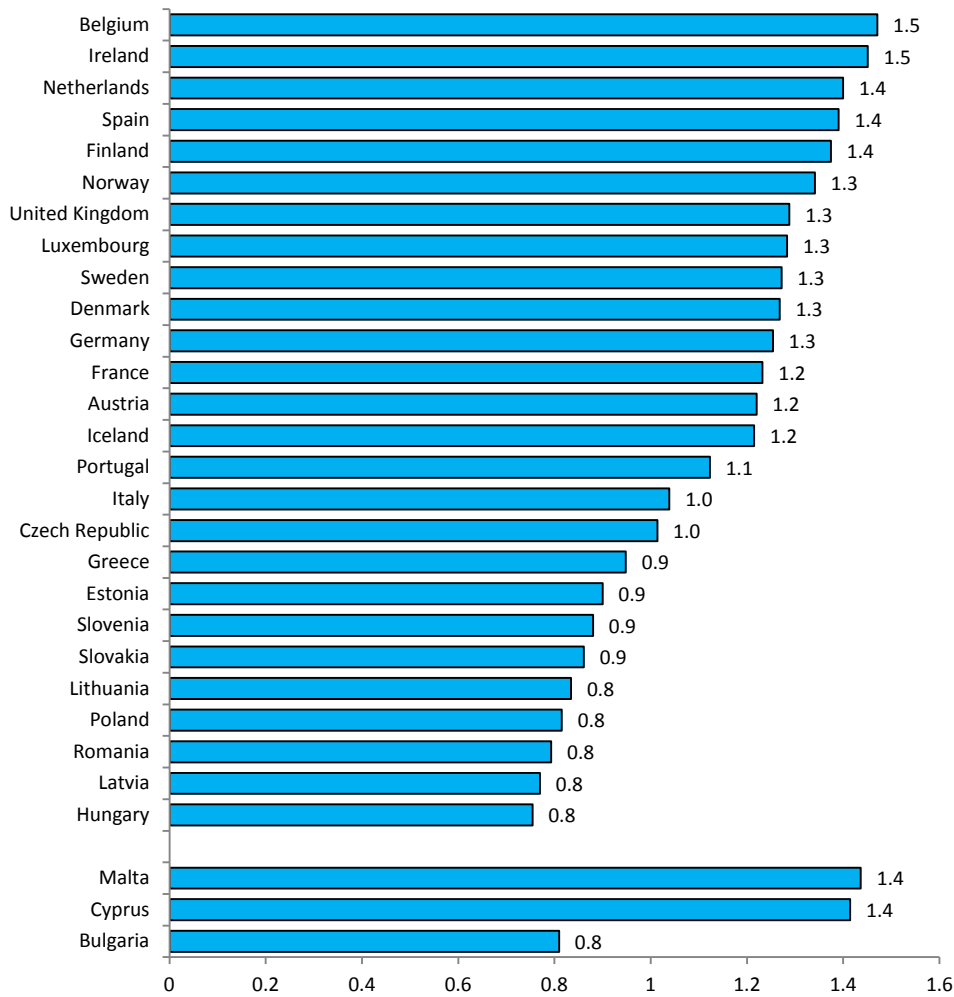
Source: Authors' calculations based on Currie et al (2012) and World Development Indicator database

3.5 Housing and Environment

Another important dimension contributing to child well-being is related to the housing and environmental conditions in which children live. Although this dimension was not included in the Report Card 7 due to the absence of comparable data, there was awareness about its significant impact on the development of children and young people. According to the UNCRC, every child should be granted the right of good living conditions since the possibility to grow up in an adequate environmental condition. As could be expected, environmental conditions and child well-being are strictly correlated. Indeed, environmental and housing problems are usually related to poor child outcomes and in particular they can negatively impact not only on child health (Shaw, 2004) but also on their educational achievements (Barnes et al., 2010). The housing and environment dimension encompasses three components: overcrowding, housing problems and environmental conditions.

i) Overcrowding. Several researches demonstrate that children living in overcrowded house could be faced more health, physical, psychological and social problems (Evans, 2006). In particular, the overcrowding indicator refers to the numbers of rooms per person in household with children. The data are from EU – SILC 2009 and are available for 27 EU countries plus Iceland and Norway. No information is available for Australia, Canada, Japan, New Zealand, Switzerland and the USA. As can be seen in Figure 6, it ranges between 0.8 and 1.4. Central and Eastern European countries suffer more from overcrowding problems in contrast to small countries or high income countries where the number of rooms available for person is higher than the average.

Figure 6. Rooms per person

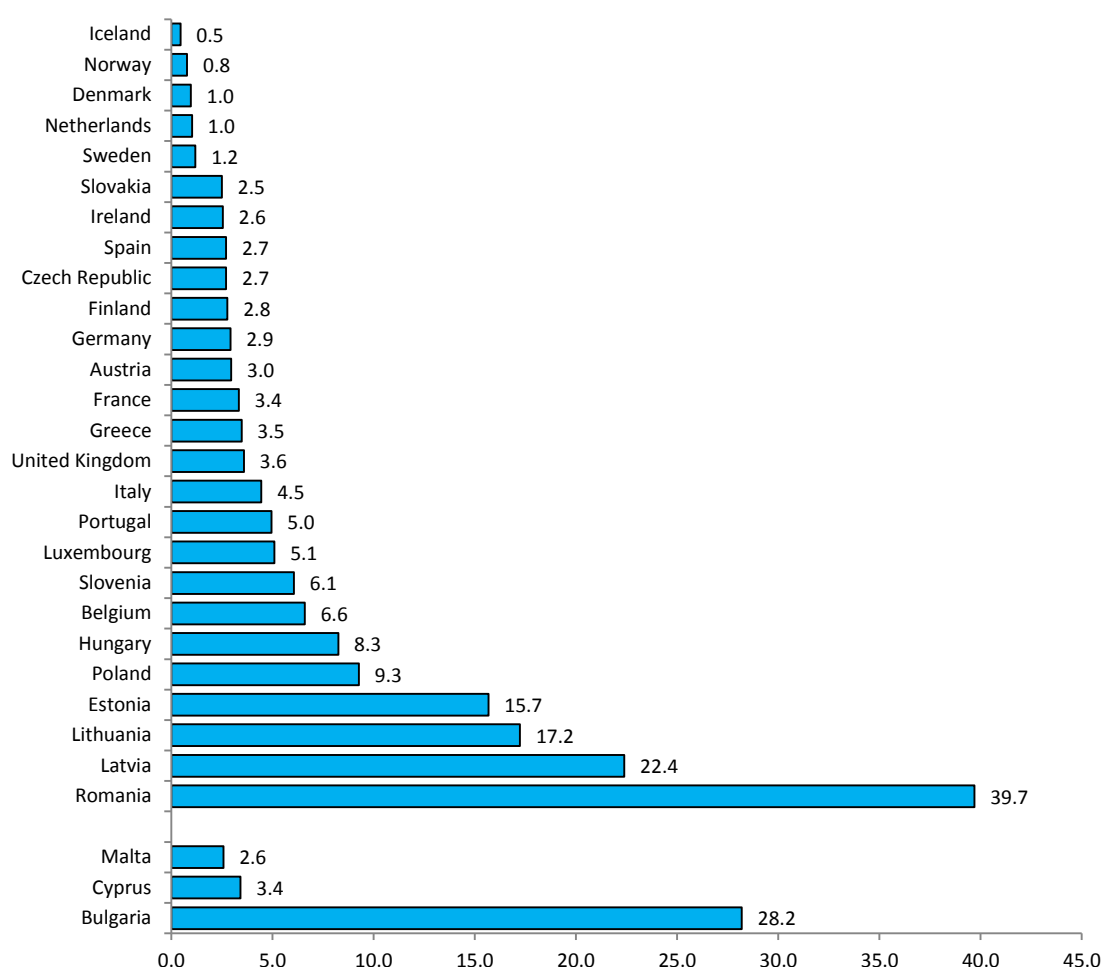


Source: Authors' calculations based on EU SILC 2009

ii) Housing problems. Bad housing conditions also affect the physical and mental health of the children (OECD, 2011c). For example, children living in a too dark dwelling could manifest depression or having more difficulties studying (Wilson, 2002). It might also influence the possibility of receiving guests impacting negatively on the engagement in basic social activities (OECD, 2009b). Information on the quality of housing conditions are taken from EU – SILC 2009. They are available for 27 EU countries plus Iceland and Norway, while there are no information for Australia, Canada, Japan, New Zealand, Switzerland and the USA.

Figure 7 shows the percentage of children living in households that report more than one housing problem among the following four: 1) leaking roof, damp floor/walls/foundations/rot in windows, 2) too dark dwelling, 3) no bath or shower, 4) no indoor flushing toilet for sole use of household. As in the previous case, Central and Eastern European countries are in the worst performing group. Romania shows the highest value having almost 4 out of 10 children living in households with housing problems. In contrast, Nordic European countries are still in the best performing group. In Denmark, Iceland, the Netherlands, Norway and Sweden, less than 2 children out of 10 live in households reporting housing problems.

Figure 7. Households with children who report more than one housing problem



Source: Authors' calculations based on EU SILC 2009

iii) Environment conditions. This component presents information on the conditions of the environment where children grow up. Children's well-being is strongly influenced by the safeness and healthiness of the physical environment in which they live. The exposure of children to a violent environment could have negative effects on their physical and psychological development. Due to lack of available and reliable alternative data, homicide rates (homicides per 100,000 persons) are used to capture information on crime. In particular, the use of homicide rates is preferred over other violent crimes measures as it reduces the potential bias in international comparison due to differences in national legislations across countries. Indeed, violent crimes figures are difficult to compare internationally because they are directly affected by different criminal justice systems and different tolerance and acceptability toward violence across countries and cultures.

Moreover, empirical evidence suggests that there is a high correlation between increased particle concentrations short and long-term exposure and increased mortality (OECD, 2011b), but also respiratory disease (WHO Europe, 2005). Thus, we use the outdoor air pollution (Annual PM₁₀ [$\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$])⁶ to measure the healthiness of the environment in which children live.

⁶ This indicator measures the annual concentration of fine particulate matter, i.e. particles smaller than 10 microns.

As can be seen in Table 11, in four countries – Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and the United States of America – the homicide rate is higher than four points. Four countries - Greece, Italy, Latvia and Romania- seem to suffer heavily from air pollution. Combining these two different indicators we have the environmental conditions component. As in the previous analysis, Eastern European countries perform worse than other countries as well Greece and Italy. In contrast, less populated countries are in the best performing group. In the first top position there are also two larger countries as Germany and the United Kingdom.

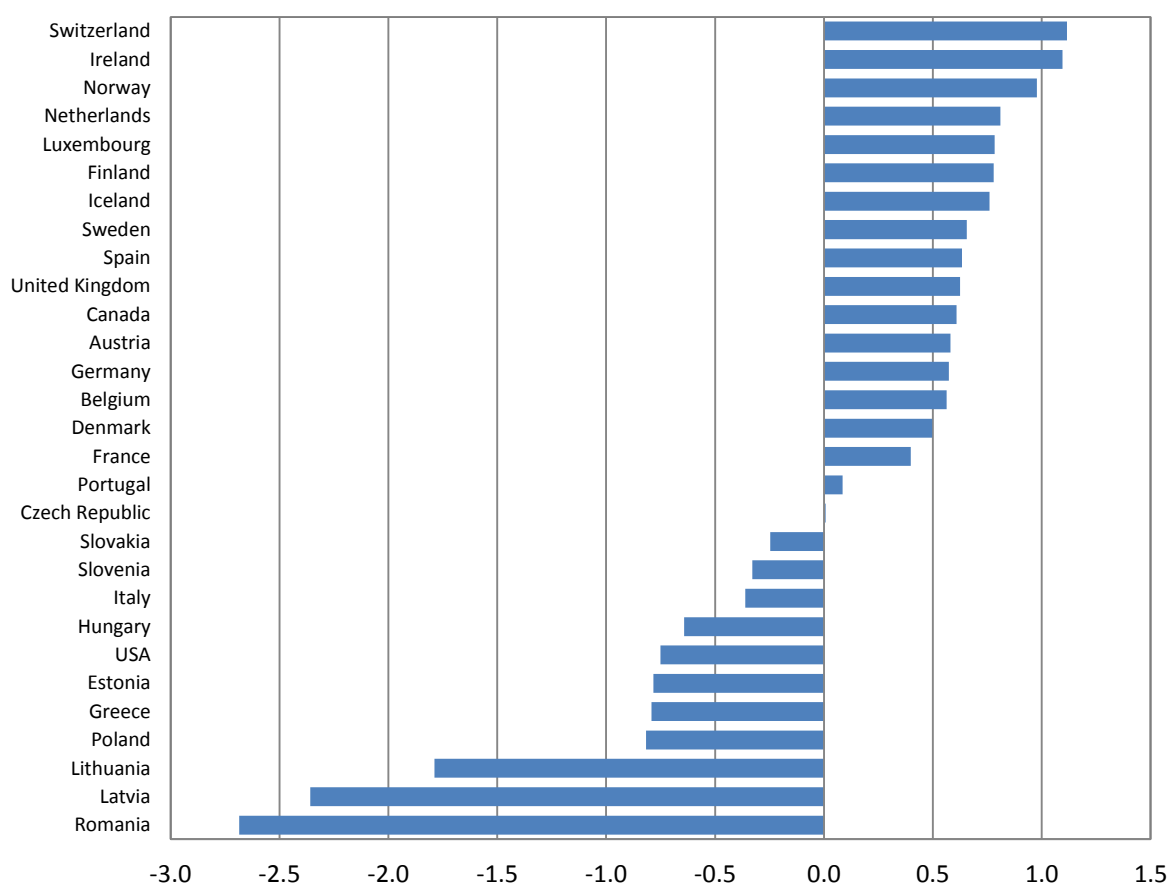
Table 11. Environment conditions component

| | Crime | Pollution |
|----------------|-------|-----------|
| Luxembourg | 1.0 | 18.0 |
| Ireland | 2.1 | 15.0 |
| Norway | 0.6 | 22.0 |
| Switzerland | 0.7 | 22.0 |
| Iceland | 0.3 | 24.0 |
| Austria | 0.5 | 25.0 |
| United Kingdom | 1.2 | 23.0 |
| Finland | 2.2 | 19.0 |
| Germany | 0.9 | 25.0 |
| Canada | 1.8 | 21.0 |
| Sweden | 1.0 | 25.0 |
| Netherlands | 1.1 | 26.0 |
| France | 1.1 | 27.0 |
| Slovenia | 0.6 | 30.0 |
| Spain | 0.9 | 29.0 |
| Hungary | 1.4 | 27.0 |
| Denmark | 1.4 | 27.0 |
| Portugal | 1.2 | 28.0 |
| Czech Republic | 1.0 | 29.0 |
| Belgium | 1.7 | 26.0 |
| Slovakia | 1.6 | 27.0 |
| Estonia | 5.2 | 11.0 |
| Poland | 1.3 | 33.0 |
| USA | 5.0 | 18.0 |
| Italy | 1.0 | 37.0 |
| Greece | 1.3 | 44.0 |
| Romania | 2.0 | 42.0 |
| Lithuania | 7.5 | 21.0 |
| Latvia | 4.8 | 39.0 |
| Australia | 1.3 | 13.0 |
| Bulgaria | 2.0 | 60.0 |
| Cyprus | 1.5 | 53.0 |
| Japan | | 22.0 |
| Malta | 1.0 | 35.0 |
| New Zealand | 1.5 | 15.0 |

Source: Authors' calculations based on EU SILC 2009

iv) Findings from the housing and environment dimension. Figure 8 shows the housing and environment dimension. Less populated countries are among the best performers. Switzerland is in the first position followed by Ireland and Norway. On the other hand, Central and Eastern European countries plus Greece, Italy and the United States are in the worst performing group.

Figure 8. Housing and environment in rich nations



Source: Authors' calculations

3.6 Child well-being index

Table 15 presents the main findings of the analysis. The child well-being index is given by the average rank of the five dimensions assessed: namely, material deprivations, health, education, behaviour and risks, housing and environment.

The Netherlands heads the overall index ranking. This country ranks first in three out of the five dimensions considered for the child well-being while it is among the top five performers in the remaining dimensions. Nordic countries (excluding Denmark) are in the best performing group along with Belgium, Germany, Ireland, Luxembourg and Switzerland.

At the bottom of the ranking, Romania and the USA are always in the worst performing group. Also, Latvia and Lithuania perform relatively worse than the average since they are in the bottom of the ranking in four out of five dimensions.

Table 15. Child well-being rank in rich nations with and without subjective well-being

| | Material Situation | Health | Education | Behaviour | Housing and environment | Child well-being index |
|----------------|--------------------|--------|-----------|-----------|-------------------------|------------------------|
| Netherlands | 1 | 5 | 1 | 1 | 4 | 2.4 |
| Norway | 3 | 7 | 6 | 4 | 3 | 4.6 |
| Iceland | 4 | 1 | 10 | 3 | 7 | 5.0 |
| Finland | 2 | 3 | 4 | 12 | 6 | 5.4 |
| Sweden | 5 | 2 | 11 | 5 | 8 | 6.2 |
| Germany | 11 | 12 | 3 | 6 | 13 | 9.0 |
| Luxembourg | 6 | 4 | 22 | 9 | 5 | 9.2 |
| Switzerland | 9 | 11 | 16 | 11 | 1 | 9.6 |
| Belgium | 13 | 13 | 2 | 14 | 14 | 11.2 |
| Ireland | 17 | 15 | 17 | 7 | 2 | 11.6 |
| Denmark | 12 | 23 | 7 | 2 | 15 | 11.8 |
| Slovenia | 8 | 6 | 5 | 21 | 20 | 12.0 |
| France | 10 | 10 | 15 | 13 | 16 | 12.8 |
| Czech Republic | 16 | 8 | 12 | 22 | 18 | 15.2 |
| Portugal | 21 | 14 | 18 | 8 | 17 | 15.6 |
| United Kingdom | 14 | 16 | 24 | 15 | 10 | 15.8 |
| Canada | 15 | 27 | 14 | 16 | 11 | 16.6 |
| Austria | 7 | 26 | 23 | 17 | 12 | 17.0 |
| Spain | 24 | 9 | 26 | 20 | 9 | 17.6 |
| Hungary | 18 | 20 | 8 | 24 | 22 | 18.4 |
| Poland | 22 | 18 | 9 | 19 | 26 | 18.8 |
| Italy | 23 | 17 | 25 | 10 | 21 | 19.2 |
| Estonia | 19 | 22 | 13 | 26 | 24 | 20.8 |
| Slovakia | 25 | 21 | 21 | 18 | 19 | 20.8 |
| Greece | 20 | 19 | 28 | 25 | 25 | 23.4 |
| USA | 26 | 25 | 27 | 23 | 23 | 24.8 |
| Lithuania | 27 | 24 | 19 | 29 | 27 | 25.2 |
| Latvia | 28 | 28 | 20 | 28 | 28 | 26.4 |
| Romania | 29 | 29 | 29 | 27 | 29 | 28.6 |

5. Limits

Notwithstanding the improvements carried out with respect to RC7, there are still a number of problems that remain. Some problems are common to the previous Report Card such as the age of children included in the analysis, the inability to cover all dimension of child well-being and to represent the conditions of all children.

With respect to the age of the children, there is a clear bias to the adolescent period. This situation is linked to the fact that the major source of the analysis is Currie et al (2012). They used data from the HBSC survey which is a sample of 11, 13 and 15-year-olds.

The second problem is the inability - or better - the impossibility to cover all dimensions of child well-being. Although we overcome one of the lack of the previous Report Card thanks to the inclusion of the dimension “housing and environment” there are still several dimensions characterizing the child well – being not represented in this report card.

As in the Report Card 7, RC11 does not include any information on some of the most vulnerable groups that would have otherwise been included as for the CRC had it not been for data availability constraints. Indeed, most of the statistics presented throughout the Report Card are based on household surveys data. Large scale household surveys, however, do not usually collect data on children living outside the household or family care settings such as children living on the street (homeless) and children living in institutions (UNICEF, 2006; UNICEF, 2003; Carr-Hill, 2012); leaving ‘institutionalised’ children out means that children in different types of facilities – such as orphanages, care facilities, military bases, jails, juvenile detention centres, and so on – are not captured (UNICEF, 2006; EFA, 2006). Other children that are *excluded* – with rare exceptions – from household surveys *by design* (Carr-Hill, 2012) are: highly mobile, nomadic or pastoralist populations (Carr-Hill, 2012; EFA, 2006) and internally displaced persons and refugees (EFA, 2006). These indeed are not usually within the sampling frame of such surveys.

Finally, measurement error is another problem common to this kind of analysis. In particular, if measurement error occurs unequally in the comparison populations, results could be biased. The variation recorded across countries will therefore be driven by measurement error rather than by real differences. For instance, the use of infant mortality and low birth weight raises the issue of international comparability. Some of the variation across countries in infant mortality rates and low birth weight is due to differences in registration of live births, deaths and stillbirths (in particular registration of very small infants – less than 500 g - at the borderline of viability). Although variations in registration of births might potentially compromise the validity of international rankings, no consensus has been reached on the extent of these differences and on how to most appropriately adjust data to take account of them (Joseph *et al.*, 2012). Notwithstanding some of the issues highlighted, the paper still rely on these indicators as they are the best available data and represent a crucial dimension of child well-being.

6. Conclusions

This paper compares the well-being of children across the most economically advanced countries of the world. It discusses the methodological issues involved in comparing children's well-being across countries and explains how a Child Well-being Index is constructed to rank countries according to their performance in advancing child-well-being. The index uses 30 indicators combined in 13 components again summarised in 5 dimensions for 35 rich countries. Data from various sources are combined to capture aspects of child well-being: material well-being, health, education, behaviour and risks, housing and environment. The scores for the countries on all variables and combinations of variables are discussed in detail.

It is striking to see that most countries have at least some or several dimensions or components that show a relative disappointing performance. Some countries do relatively well on most dimensions (the Netherlands and the Scandinavian countries (except Denmark) and some countries perform relatively badly on most dimensions and components (the United States, Romania and Bulgaria. The Child Well-being index and the results on its dimensions, components and indicators reveal that serious differences across countries exist, suggesting that in quite many countries improvement could be made in the quality of the lives of children.

This paper is complemented by two other papers: one discussing the changes in child well-being during the first decade of the 21st century (Martorano et al., 2013) and one discussing child subjective well-being and its relationship with the Child Well-being Index presented in this paper (Bradshaw et al., 2013).

REFERENCES

- Barnes, M., Butt, S. and W. Tomaszewski (2010), "The Duration of Bad Housing and Children's Well-being in Britain", *Housing Studies*.
- Ben-Arieh, A. (2008), "The Child Indicators Movement: Past, Present, and Future", *Child Indicators Research* 1, pp. 3-16.
- Ben-Arieh, A. and I. Frønes (2011), "Taxonomy for child well-being indicators: A framework for the analysis of the well-being of children", *Childhood* November 2011 18: 460-476.
- Bradshaw, J., Hoelscher, P. and D. Richardson (2007), "Comparing Child Well-Being in OECD Countries: Concepts and Methods", *Innocenti Working Paper* No. 2006-03. Florence, UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre.
- Bradshaw, J., B. Martorano, L. Natali, C. de Neubourg (2013), *Children's Subjective Well-being in Rich Countries*, Working Paper 2013-3, UNICEF Office of Research, Florence.
- Bradshaw, J. and E. Mayhew (2005) *The Well-being of Children in the UK* (second edition), London: Save the Children.
- Cabinet Office, Gender Equality Bureau, Japan (2011), "The State of Poverty and Gender Gap", paper presented at the Working Group on "Women and the Economy", Specialist Committee on Basic Issues and Gender Impact Assessment and Evaluation under the Council for Gender Equality, Tokyo 20 December 2011.
- Carey, D. & Ernst, E. (2006) "Improving Education Achievement and Attainment in Luxembourg," *OECD Economics Department Working Papers* 508, OECD Publishing.
- Carr-Hill, R. (2012) Finding and then counting out of school children, *Compare*, Volume 42, Number 2, pp. 187-212(26).
- Currie C, Zanotti C, Morgan A *et al.* (2012) Social determinants of health and well-being among young people. Health Behaviour in School-aged Children (HBSC) study: international report from the 2009/2010 survey. Copenhagen: World Health Organisation.
- Diener, E., Oishi, S., & Lucas, R. E. (2003) Personality, culture, and subjective well-being: Emotional and cognitive evaluations of life. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 54, 403-425.
- Dijkstra, T. (2009), "Child Well-being in Rich Countries: UNICEF's Ranking Revisited, and New Symmetric Aggregating Operators Exemplified", *Child Indicators Research*, 2(3): 303–317.
- Elders MJ, Perry, C L, Eriksen, M P and G A Giovino (1994) The report of the Surgeon General: preventing tobacco use among young people. *American journal of public health*, 1994, 84: 543±547.

European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (2011) Young people and NEETs in Europe: First findings – Résumé. Available at: <http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/pubdocs/2011/72/en/1/EF1172EN.pdf>

Evans, G.W. (2006). Child development and the physical environment. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 57, 423-451.

Fernandes, L., Mendes, A. and A.A.C.Teixeira (2010), “A review essay on child well-being measurement: uncovering the paths for future research”, FEP Working Paper, n 396.

Huebner, E. S., Suldo, S. M., Smith, L. C., & McKnight, C.G. (2004). Life satisfaction in children and youth: Empirical foundations and implications for school psychologists [Special issue]. *Psychology in the Schools*, 41, 81 – 93.

Jeong, H.S. and J. Hurst (2001), “An Assessment of the Performance of the Japanese Health Care System”, *OECD Labour Market and Social Policy Occasional Paper*, No. 56, Paris.

Joseph KS, Liu S, Rouleau J, Lisonkova S, Hutcheon JA, Sauve R, Allen AC, Kramer MS, Fetal and Infant Health Study Group of the Canadian Perinatal Surveillance System (2012) Influence of definition based versus pragmatic birth registration on international comparisons of perinatal and infant mortality: population based retrospective study. *BMJ*

Heshmati, A., Bajalan, C. and A. Tausch (2007), “Measurement and Analysis of Child Well-Being in Middle and High Income Countries”, *IZA Document Paper*, No. 3203.

Hokama T, Binns C. (2009) Trends in the prevalence of low birth weight in Okinawa, Japan: a public health perspective. *Acta Paediatrica*. 2009; 98(2):242–246.

Martorani B., L. Natali, C. de Neubourg and J. Bradshaw (2013b), Child Well-being in Economically Rich Countries: Changes in the First Decade of the 21st Century, Working Paper 2013- 2, UNICEF Office of Research, Florence.

Merten MJ, Williams AL, Shriver LH. Breakfast consumption in adolescence and young adulthood: parental presence, community context, and obesity. *Journal of the American Dietetic Association*, 2009, 109(8):1384–1391.

Moore, k., Jones, N. & Broadbent, E. (2008) School violence in OECD countries International Plan, London.

de Neubourg, C., Bradshaw, J., Chzhen, Y., Main, G., Martorano, B. and L. Menchini (2012), “Child Deprivation and Poverty in Europe”, *Innocenti Working Paper* 02-2012, UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre, Florence

OECD (2009a) Society at a Glance OECD Social Indicators. Available at: http://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/social-issues-migration-health/society-at-a-glance-2009_soc_glance-2008-en

OECD (2009b), Doing Better for Children, Paris.

OECD (2011a) Education at a glance: OECD Indicators,. OECD Paris.

OECD (2011b) Interim Report on the Gender Initiative: Gender Equality in Education, Employment and Entrepreneurship. Available at: <http://www.oecd.org/education/48111145.pdf>

OECD (2011c), Society at a Glance 2011: OECD Social Indicators, OECD Publishing, Paris.

OECD (2011d) Health at a glance: OECD Indicators. OECD Paris.

Ohmi, H., K. Hirooka, A. Hata and Y. Mochizuki (2001), Recent trend of increase in proportion of low birthweight infants in Japan, *International journal of Epidemiology*, 30: pp. 1269-71.

Quintini G., J.P. Martin and S. Martin (2006), "The Changing Nature of the School-to-Work Transition Process in OECD Countries"; *IZA discussion paper*, n. 2582.

Perry, Bryan (2011), "Household Incomes in New Zealand: Trends in indicators of inequality and hardship 1982 to 2010", Ministry of Social Development, Wellington, July 2011.

Redmond, G. (2009), "Children as actors: How Does the Child Perspectives Literature Treat Agency in the Context of Poverty?", *Social Policy and Society*, 8:4, pp. 541-550.

Shaw, M. (2004) Housing and public health, *Annual Review of Public Health*, 25, pp. 397 – 418.

The Children's Society (2010), "Developing an index of children's subjective well-being in England", London, October. Available at: http://www.childrenssociety.org.uk/sites/default/files/tcs/research_docs/Developing%20an%20Index%20of%20Children%27s%20Subjective%20Well-being%20in%20England.pdf

The Moving Project, *NEETS* - Understanding young people who are Not in Education, Employment or Training, 2010. Available at: http://www.movingproject.eu/pdf/Research_Report_-_Understanding_NEETS.pdf

UNESCO (2000) The right to education: Towards Education for All throughout life. World Education Report 2000 UNESCO, Paris.

UNICEF (2003) Africa's Orphaned Generations. New York: UNICEF.

UNICEF (2006) Collecting Data for National Indicators on Children Orphaned and made Vulnerable by AIDS: A Methodological Report

United Nations Children's Fund and World Health Organization (2004), Low Birthweight: Country, regional and global estimates. UNICEF, New York.

UNICEF IRC (2001). A League Table of Teenage Births in Rich Nations, Innocenti Report Card 3. Florence: Innocenti Centre, 2001.

UNICEF (2007) Child poverty in perspective: An overview of child well-being in rich countries, Innocenti Report Card 7, UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre, Florence.

Windle M. Alcohol use among adolescents and young adults. *Alcohol Research & Health*, 2003, 27(1):79–85

Wilson N. (2002) Depression and its relation to light deprivation. *Pshychoanal Rev.* 2002; 89: 557-567.